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Voluntary Association Membership and Participation of a Military Group

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VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATION MEMBERSHIP AND PARTICIPATION OF A MILITARY GROUP

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Sociological studies have demonstrated the need for further investigation of voluntary membership patterns in community organizations and clubs. Some investigators of the problem have had to work within limitations due to the nature of their data. In some instances, the sampling procedures did not provide adequate data. In other instances, if the samples were representative, the findings related to limited universes such as a small community, a single city, or a single social class. Preliminary to an adequate understanding of voluntary associations and their relationships to other social processes, it is necessary that further studies be instituted on the various segments of the culture. The role of voluntary associations in the organized life of important subcultures such as racial, regional, or occupational is a relatively unexplored area at this time. In this study, the concern is directed toward partially eliminating our lack of knowledge of important subcultures by investigating voluntary membership and participation of an occupational subculture, namely, a military group.

I. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Americans, especially city dwellers, have often been characterized as a nation of joiners.

> The sheer size of urban populations, their cultural diversity and occupational differentiation make the city fertile ground for many types of organizations.[1]

A number of underlying trends in our society (industrialization, urbanization, increased division of labor and secularization) together, determine many of the characteristic features of our time. The net effect has been a decline in extended kinship relations as a basis of social organization to a type of society in which major bonds are voluntary and based upon the rational pursuit of self interest. Western social organization has developed from a homogeneous society toward social differentiation (specialization and heterogeneity).[2]

Broom and Selznick claim that the multiplication of special-purpose groups is one of the distinguishing characteristics of contemporary society.[3]

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[1] Leonard Broom and Philip Selznick, Sociology, (New York: Row, Peterson and Company, 1958), p. 439.

[2] Ibid., pp. 35-36.

[3] Ibid., p. 37.

> The decline of kinship as the basis of social organization has led to the rise of other, more specialized groups to carry on the main activities of a society. Furthermore, the division of labor creates many new interests, and the emphasis on rationality justifies the formation of new groups as a practical way of achieving joint aims. Secularism gives people the freedom to criticize long-established institutions, and they can experiment with new associations.[4]

Wirth, in writing on urbanism as a form of social organization, described distinctive features of urban life as consisting of the substitution of secondary for primary contacts, the weakening of extensive kinship bonds, and the declining social significance of the family. As a result of these changes, Wirth explained that the transfer of industrial, educational, and recreational activities outside the home has deprived the family of some of its most characteristic historical functions. He further explained that these changes have led to the multiplication of voluntary organizations directed toward satisfying human needs and interests.[5]

Another distinctive characteristic of urban life is bureaucracy. A feature of bureaucracy, as stated by

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[4] Ibid.

[5] Paul Hatt and Albert Reiss, Cities and Society, (Illinois: The Free Press, 1951), pp. 60-61.

Merton, is depersonalization of relationships:

> The bureaucracy, as we have seen, is organized as a secondary, formal group. The normal responses involved in this organized network of social expectations are supported by affective attitudes of members of the group. Since the group is oriented toward secondary norms of impersonality, any failure to conform to these norms will arouse antagonism from those who have identified themselves with the legitimacy of these rules. Hence, the substitution of personal for impersonal treatment within the structure is met with widespread disapproval and is characterized by such epithets as graft, favoritism, nepotism, apple-polishing, etc. ...Bureaucracy is a secondary group structure designed to carry on certain activities which cannot be satisfactory performed on the basis of primary group criteria.[6]

The American economy has moved from self-employment, in which each man completed a total operation, to bureaucratic employment, where each man performs a minute part of a total operation governed by administrative control as well as competition. Modern bureaucracies, whether governmental, business, military, or academic, in their competition for favorable attention, use abstract sentiments and manipulate the general public in various ways. Communication, states Green, "has tended to indirection and depersonalization, a one-way traffic directed at the anonymous individual of mass society."[7]

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[6]Robert Merton, Social Theory and Social Structure, (Illinois: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1949), p. 159.

[7]Arnold Green, Sociology, (New York: McGraw-Hill Company, Inc., 1956), p. 290.

Rose advances the theory that voluntary associations greatly expanded in number and membership after mass society began to have its impact:

> By providing an opportunity to work on something creative, even if only in a hobby association, the voluntary association offers its members a partial escape from boredom and from a sense of uselessness. In these ways the voluntary association counteracts the feelings engendered by the mass society, and it is modern democratic society's substitute for the integrated group of the primitive or folk society.[8]

Young and Mack write similar statements on formal organizations in modern day society.

> Yet on the whole, the larger the community, the more likely we are to find a sense of personal isolation, loss of intimacy with others, and similar marks of mass society. A central integrating set of values may be difficult to find. The opportunities for personal choice and a certain cultural pressure toward diffuseness conteract the chances for a more integrated focus of activity ... The rise of a secondary-group organization of society means the introduction of all sorts of formal associations bearing on agriculture, education, religion, and recreation where there were none before.[9]

The result of these basic trends has been an increase in formal organizations. Bushee, in his study of adult organizations in Boulder, Colorado, discovered that Boulder had a total of 268 organizations with an aggregate

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[8]Arnold Rose, "Reactions Against the Mass Society," The Sociological Quarterly, III (October, 1962), pp. 325-326.

[9]Kimball Young and Raymond Mack, Sociology and Social Life, (New York: American Book Company, 1959), p. 288.

membership of 17,324 or an average of 65 members for each organization.[10] In the Lynds' study, "Middletown", a trend toward greater organization was revealed. They found that in 1890, there were ninety-two clubs or one for every 125 people. In 1924, there were 458 active clubs, roughly one for every 80 people.[11]

Organizations are plentiful; yet, studies indicate that membership participation in a large number of associations is not characteristic of many Americans and is far from universally distributed throughout the various segments of the population. Empirical research further reveals that although the old neighborhood and the larger kin group might have broken down, they have not been replaced by specialized groups to nearly the extent usually assumed. As new knowledge becomes available in this area of research, it may be possible eventually to know the extent of participation in voluntary associations of all the various segments within the culture, to know what kind of persons join what type of associations, and to get a better appreciation of the degree of participation.

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[10] Frederich Bushee, "Social Organization in a Small Town," The American Journal of Sociology, 8, (July, 1945), pp. 217-226.

[11] Robert Lynd and Helen Lynd, Middletown, (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1929), pp. 285-286.

In general, this study investigates the pattern of membership in voluntary associations of both officers and enlisted men from a representative military group residing in Omaha, Nebraska. More specifically, this study will attempt to ascertain correlates of membership participation which might be considered determinants such as rank, educational level, age, marital status, length of residence, and home tenure.

II. DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

Throughout this report, several terms are used which require clarification of meaning.

Voluntary association. This term is used to denote those groups into which entrance rests on the choice of the individual. Voluntary associations will further denote a group of persons organized to pursue mutual and personal interests, usually non-profit in nature. Since voluntary associations will be defined as structured groups, they will have qualifying criteria for membership such as offices filled by election or selection by representatives, periodic meetings and meetings frequently held in a regular meeting place. Voluntary associations have been

designated by various persons as "formal groups", "formal organizations", "formal associations", "clubs", "societies", and "special interest groups". These terms will be used interchangeably in this study. Most studies have excluded church membership as evidence for participation in a voluntary association; therefore, church membership will also be excluded in this study. (This exception, however, does not exclude from consideration membership participation in church-sponsored associations). Likewise, membership in service clubs (the Officers' Club, N.C.O. Club, and Airmen's Club) will be excluded in this study as evidence for participation in a voluntary association. Although membership in service clubs is considered voluntary, it is, perhaps, more possible in a military organization to exert pressures which may tend to encourage membership participation, thereby, placing suspicion on the membership being voluntary. The military establishment is a unique power group and is therefore in a better position to exert more pressure than a non-military organization.

Participation. This refers to the amount of participation or the actual number of meetings attended in a year.

Membership. This is used to designate the number

of memberships in clubs and formal organizations.

Military Group. Since this investigation was conducted in only one military post, the term "military group" shall be interpreted as indicating officers and enlisted men stationed at a military base in Omaha, Nebraska.

Military Status. Throughout the report ranks of officers and enlisted men in the United States Armed Forces will be viewed as being comparable to general socio-economic classes within the society.

III. THEORETICAL SETTING

The purpose of this thesis is to determine the extent of membership and participation of a military group in formal organizations and clubs. In order to accomplish this objective, it is necessary that an explanation be given of major concepts and their relevancy to this research.

Merton states that "the choice of concepts guiding the collection and analysis of data is, of course, crucial to empirical inquiry."[12]

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[12]Merton, op. cit., p. 87.

> Conceptual clarification makes clear just what the research worker is doing when he deals with conceptualized data....Concepts, then, constitute the definitions of what is to be observed; they are the variables between which empirical relationships are sought. For, to state an important truism, if concepts are selected such that no relationships between them obtain, the research will be sterile, no matter how meticulous the subsequent observations and references.[13]

A basic requirement in the application of the scientific method, explains Goode and Hatt, is clear definitions of concepts.[14]

> We must, then, see which of the relevant aspects of our case we are most interested in, so that our data will be relevant to the proper higher level category ... Proceeding from the highly general concept to the more concrete simply challenges the student to translate his broad notions into concepts that are concrete enough to be observable.[15]

Warner advances the theory that criticism in the form of accusing the investigator of bias is less likely to occur if a theoretical position is given and that there is far less likelihood of the work's being skewed by the writer or misunderstood by the reader if the former's theoretical position, methods, and techniques

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[13] Ibid.

[14] William Goode and Paul Hatt, Methods in Social Research, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1952), p. 56.

[15] Ibid,, p. 52.

are explicitly presented.[16]

> Too frequently the protested lack of a theoretical position when field work is presented merely masks a set of unconscious or partly conscious assumptions which, though neither the researcher nor the reader may be aware of it, biases the results of the research and prevents an adequate treatment of the social reality being studied, either in the collection of the facts, in later analysis and synthesis, or in both.[17]

It is desirable, then, that the subject matter of this thesis fall within a clearly defined frame of reference; therefore, a military group will be explained in terms of its position within the American culture, moving first from the general concept, culture, to the more specific concept, a military group.

Culture may be defined simply as shared learned behavior.[18] The term culture is used by social scientists to refer to the total social heredity of mankind. Patterned behavior, therefore, found throughout a society determines its culture.

Within this culture will be found groups or categories of people who share subcultures. Although these

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[16]Lloyd Warner and Paul Lunt, The Social Life of a Modern Community, (Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1941), p. 36.

[17]Ibid., pp. 36-37.

[18]Young, op. cit., p. 35.

subcultures participate in the total culture, they will have learned a set of conducts peculiar to their group.[19] Some sociologists have suggested that there is no such thing as American culture, but instead, a conglomeration of subcultures.[20]

LaPiere stipulates that the basic culture serves as a foundation for a variety of subcultures. He defines a subculture as:

> Any complex of values, sentiments, beliefs, etc., which is at once derived from the past and transmitted to the future (hence, is "cultural") and which at the same time differentiates those who acquire it from the rest of the societal membership.[21]

Since the American society is heterogeneous, there are many important subcultures such as ethnic, regional, and occupational. However, this author will not attempt to describe the various subcultures but, instead, will attempt to indicate some important aspects of an occupational subculture since this is to be the focus of this research.

As a consequence of industrialization, occupational

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[19] Ibid., p. 52.

[20] Broom, op. cit., p. 50.

[21] Richard LaPiere, A Theory of Social Control, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1954), p. 34.

subcultures have greatly increased over the past two centuries; there has been an increase both in the number of specialized occupational groups and in differences between one occupation and another.[22] In the contemporary world at least, members of each occupational grouping have something of their own subculture.

> The lawyer, for example, knows things most of us do not know and performs certain activities in which most of us do not participate. ... Railroaders, for further example, share in the general ethos, but in addition to this, they have a special language, they place a peculiar value on time, they know things and have ideas which are not common to most members of the society. In other words, they participate in an occupational subculture.[23]

Likewise, anyone who has listened to a discussion among members of a military group know that their occupational activities are highly specialized and require specialized training, and that they share a private language distinctive to the group.

Formulated above is a basic conceptual framework which will serve as a theoretical setting for this thesis. The leading idea, presented to give form to this research, was that the basic culture serves as a foundation for many subcultures.

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[22] Ibid., p. 22.

[23] Young, op. cit., p. 49.

In this investigation, then, a military group will be presented from the viewpoint as being one, of many, occupational subcultures existing within the total culture system.

IV. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The core of the Gemeinschaft-Gesellschaft concept is the assumption that industrialization and urbanization have brought about a unique form of social organization in which the modern individual is supposed to belong to and participate, at least largely, in secondary associations.

Although organizations are plentiful, various studies have indicated that membership in a large number of associations is not characteristic of many Americans. However, studies of social participation in voluntary organizations published during the past decade or two have dealt usually with rural areas, small communities and urban residents.

Before valid generalizations can be made on the joining habits of Americans, empirical research of various segments within the culture should be considered.

This study is believed to be significant since the focus of this investigation is an important segment of the culture, namely, an occupational subculture. The occupational subculture selected for this inquiry, a military group, is also believed to be significant because of

several factors.

First, the military organization is comprised of various segments in the culture. A consequence of the mere growth in the size of the military establishment and the need to recruit increasing numbers, has gone far in broadening its recruitment base. Using a military group as the sample population for this study offers an exceptional opportunity to study a cross-section of the American society.

Secondly, a military group represents a very large occupational subculture. For the first time in peacetime history, the United States maintains large, permanent military forces. In 1950, the total military forces in the United States had a population of 982,312.[24] In June 1961, there were 821,151 officers and enlisted men in the United States Air Force; 627,089 United States Navy personnel; and a total of 856,853 Army personnel on active duty.[25]

A third factor is that military posts are located near many communities throughout the United States, therefore, making them an important part of the total culture.

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[24]Broom, op. cit., p. 555.

[25]Harry Hansen (ed.), The World Almanac and Book of Facts, (New York: New York World-Telegram, 1962), pp. 725-726.

Even though this study is considered significant from the standpoint of the sample population, there are still other considerations which lend significance to this thesis. It is possible that knowledge may be obtained on the social behavior of a military community. At the present time, this lack of knowledge is a void in scientific literature. For example, with what social strata do the officers and enlisted men develop an affiliation and common interest? Can their position in the social structure be determined by their affiliations?

In Warner's study, "Yankee City", formal associations were discovered to be useful as an mechanism for placing people within the class hierarchy, for it was noticed that certain types of associations were peculiar to certain classes.[26]

Another question might be to determine if officers and enlisted men affiliate with associations that enhance the prestige of their profession?

Janowitz, in his study of the professional soldier, presents the following viewpoint:

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[26]Warner, op. cit., p. 118.

> But, as the military profession grows larger and socially more heterogeneous, as it becomes more of a career, does not pressure develop for prestige recognition by the public at large? Every professional soldier, like every businessman or government official, represents his establishment and must work to enhance the prestige of his profession.[27]

Finally, is an interest shown, through affiliations, in establishing good civilian-military relations?

At the present time, a majority of military members live "off-base" in communities adjacent to their station, because of the lack of sufficient housing in the military community.[28] Isolation of the base from the community is a thing of the past. There is now a mutual understanding that the base needs the community and the community needs the base. Whether a local community is primarily receptive to military establishments for economic or for patriotic reasons, there is still likely to be an adverse community reaction if its schools and other public facilities are overburdened by military personnel and their families. On the other hand, military personnel are likely to have an adverse reaction to the community if housing off the military base is either inadequate or too expensive; and if the absence of sufficient "on base" schools pose

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[27]Morris Janowitz, The Professional Soldier, (Illinois: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1960), p. 11.

[28]Ibid., p. 181.

problems in providing an adequate education for their children.

In this study an attempt will be made to answer the questions submitted above and, at the same time, gain new knowledge on voluntary membership in formal organizations and clubs.

V. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is (1) to determine the extent of membership and participation in voluntary associations of a military group; (2) to examine the relation between membership participation in voluntary associations and military status; (3) to present indices of military status (income, education and rank) and to determine how these factors of a military group relate to membership participation in voluntary organizations; (4) to investigate the relationship between situational factors (home tenure, length of residence, marital status, etc.) of a military group and voluntary membership in community organizations and clubs; and (5) to compare the findings of this study to related studies.

VI. ORDER OF PRESENTATION

Following this introductory chapter, the presentation of this research has been divided into seven chapters.

Chapter II consists of an examination of organizations and clubs with special attention focused on their structure and function.

Chapter III is comprised of two sections: (1) historical considerations and (2) functional aspects of joining in military life.

Chapter IV presents a selected review of the literature relating to voluntary membership participation. An effort is made to present different approaches used in investigating this area of research.

Chapter V includes a statement of hypotheses and theories upon which these hypotheses are based.

Chapter VI outlines the methodology used in this investigation. This chapter is divided into three sections: (1) sampling procedure, (2) method of collecting data, and (3) statistical methods used.

Chapter VII lists findings and interpretations of the data. This chapter is separated into two sections: (1) characteristics of the sample population, and (2) statistical analysis of the findings.

Chapter VIII, the final chapter, presents conclusions and a summary of the research findings.

CHAPTER II

FORMAL ORGANIZATIONS: THEIR STRUCTURE AND FUNCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to present a discussion on formal organizations and clubs. This chapter is divided into three sections. The first subdivision directs attention to the structural aspects of formal organizations. This is followed by an explanation of functions. The last division presents sociological implications which result from membership and participation in formal associations.

I. STRUCTURE

The formal structure of an organization consists of a system of rules which define the tasks, powers, and procedures of participants according to some officially approved pattern.[29] Formal associations, in addition to being voluntary and organized around a special interest, have formally chosen (elected, appointed, or employed) leaders or officers. They have definite rules (constitutions, bylaws, charters, organizational charts, etc.,) written to guide activities of their officers and to stipulate the rights and duties of their members. Office holding generally implies greater responsibility than

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[29]Broom, op. cit., p. 208.

committee membership.[30] Formal organizations, then, are organized with a definitely prescribed structure and, according to rules, govern much of the interaction of their members.[31]

Broom and Selznick introduced four important elements of formal structures: (1) division of labor, (2) delegation of authority, (3) channeled communication, and (4) co-ordination.[32]

Division of labor is the most obvious element of a formal organization. It occurs primarily for reasons of efficiency for certain responsibilities are delegated to particular individuals. Also, this delegation of responsibility creates new groups within the larger association.

Delegation of authority is typically revealed through a hierarchy or chain of command. Ordinarily, certain individuals and groups are assigned the right to issue orders to others. However, actual practice may differ from the official or formal pattern.

Channeled communication refers to the officially

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[30]Alvin Bertrand, Rural Sociology, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1958), p. 339.

[31]Joseph Roucek and Roland Warren, Sociology, (New Jersey: Littlefield, Adams and Company, 1961), p. 46.

[32]Broom, op. cit., p. 206.

approved paths for giving information to members. Even in the most relaxed organizations, members seek information and requests through channels.

Co-ordination is necessary to maintain a united and consistent effort by the members of an organization. In order to attain the advantages of specialization, labor is divided, but it is also necessary to maintain a united and consistent effort by the organization as a whole.[33]

Other structural aspects of formal organizations are seen in formal and informal relations, complexity of structure, and frequency of interaction.

Informal structure is used to denote those patterns that arise out of the spontaneous interaction of personalities within an organization. Formal structure is used to denote a system of definite rules and prescribed roles. However, the associations individuals participate in are always made up of both formal and informal relations.

Broom and Selznick indicate that:

> The formal system provides the environment within which informal relations arise; and the organization we actually see in operation is a product of the interaction of both formal and informal patterns of behavior.[34]

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[33] Ibid, pp. 206-207.

[34] Ibid.

Associations may vary from simple to very complex structures. Some associations may be too small to be complex while other special-interest associations are large and have complex structures. Complexity in structure often leads to the establishment of local units of state or national organizations.[35] For example, there are local units of such complex organizations as the NAACP, Veterans' organizations and labor unions.

Both simple and complex association structures were found in the "Yankee City" study.[36] The simple or single association was a separate unit and had no formal affiliations with other associations. Complex associations usually consisted of a primary or dominant association and satellite or subordinate associations. For example, the primary association, a church, was found to be the focal point around which satellite associations were clustered.

Frequency of interaction varies from one organization to another. Meetings may be held monthly, bi-monthly, weekly, the first Wednesday, the fourth Saturday, on call by the President, twice a year, etc.

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[35] Bertrand, op. cit., p. 342.

[36] Warner, op. cit., pp. 309-310.

The Omaha Chamber of Commerce prepared a list of clubs and organizations in Omaha as of January 1, 1963 (this list is reproduced in the appendix of this study) which reflects some of these variations in interaction. To illustrate, ten organizations given in the listing prepared by the Omaha Chamber of Commerce are indicated below to offer evidence of variations in when and where meetings are held:

Clubs	Meetings Held	Meeting Place
Boy Scouts of America	Bi-monthly	Various Places
Burlington Veterans	1st Wednesday	Sokol Hall
Builder's Exchange	On call	
Kiwanis Club-North Omaha	Tuesday	Birchwood Club
Lions Club, Westside	2nd & 4th Monday	Angelo's
New Neighbors League	Last Thursday	Athletic Club
Press Club, Omaha	On call	
Multiple Sclerosis	Monthly	Clarkson Hospital
Musicians Association	Quarterly	Sheraton-Fontenelle
American Legion Post #331	2nd Friday	Post Home

II. FUNCTION

Structure describes the way in which the thing analyzed is put together or the relationship of its parts to one another. Function is the consequence of a structure; it is the activity associated with structure.[37]

There are many differences in formal organizations in

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[37] Young, op. cit., p. 15.

both purpose and function. Perhaps, the multiplicity of voluntary associations and clubs can best be suggested by a list of organizations most often considered. This list will include several illustrations of each type of organization and an explanation of their primary function:

(1) Recreational:
Baseball League
Bowling League
Golf Association

There are a great number of specialized recreational interests which are formed because of a geographic factor. People living or working in close proximity come to associate in recreational groups because of their day-to-day interaction.[38] Many occupational groups belong to bowling clubs and similar organizations that are formed from members within their work group. Similar life experiences lead to social interaction. The primary function is social and recreational interest.

(2) Patriotic or Military:
American Legion
Veterans of Foreign War
Air Academy Athletic Association

Most veterans' groups are founded as organizations with the single purpose of defending the rights of veterans but most of them also become, at the local level at least, clubs which serve many purposes such as recreation, business

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[38]Bertrand, op. cit., p. 335.

contacts, encouragement of patriotism, and others.[39]

(3) Commerical Clubs:
Business Men's Association
Car Dealers Association
Furniture Salesmen's Association

Commercial clubs are devoted to business interests. Many economic activities could not be undertaken by the single individual operating by himself. It is this reason the modern world has seen the growth of a type of organized group where members pool their resources and ideas in order to undertake what the individual could not do alone. Business men organize themselves in groups where the primary function is to further business interests and solve common problems.

(4) Fraternal (Lodges)
Rotary
Knights of Columbus
Moose Lodge

Moose Lodge and similar fraternal organizations function to encourage civic and community pride, good citizenship, promote social and civic contacts, and have a basic desire to serve others.

(5) Educational:
Parents-Teachers Association
Alumni
Fraternity

The Parent-Teacher Association functions to develop a better understanding between parents and teachers, and

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[39]Young, op. cit., p. 23.

obtaining parents' cooperation in the process of educating the children of the community. Educational organizations are concerned with all phases of child welfare and better community conditions.

The university recognizes the value of a well-rounded program for student development and encourages students to participate in fraternities, sororities, special interest clubs, and other similar organizations.

(6) Hobby:
Bridge Club
Gun Club
Aero Club

People organize themselves into groups if they share special interests that serve to bring them together and mark them off from others.[40]

(7) Professional or Scientific:
American Medical Association
American Dental Association
Sociological Society

The American Medical Association functions as a group to promote the science and art of medicine and the betterment of public health.[41] Large professional associations, such as the American Medical Association, also function to exert influence in politics, for the large organized group

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[40] Hatt, op. cit., p. 592.

[41] A. H. McDannald (ed.), The Encyclopedia Americana, (New York: Americana Corporation, 1948), p. 542a.

can make their influence felt.

(8) Social:
Country Club
Toastmaster Club
Community Club

Social clubs function primarily as a framework for social life. They are particularly helpful to those who experience mobility from community to community since they provide an opportunity to meet other people of similar social status.

III. SOCIOLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Sociologists are interested in the social conditions in American society that have led to the organization of so many associations. They are interested in both the structure and function of formal associations and clubs. But, perhaps, a greater interest is shown in patterns of membership and participation, for this knowledge contributes to understanding social life in a community.

> The sociologist views the organization figuratively as a "little society". He sees in specialized associations many of the features of societies, including the processes that bind them together or disrupt them.[42]

For instance, some of the features of society reflected through membership participation in formal organizations

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[42]Broom, op. cit., p. 203.

are the following: (1) social change, (2) socialization, (3) discrimination, and (4) stratification.

Social change refers to alterations in social organization. With every passing decade, America becomes increasingly urban. Since conditions of urban living are largely different from those on the farms and in small villages, a gradual transformation in American society has been taking place. There has been a gradual shift in the emphasis of social participation from that of primary group association based on locality to secondary group association based on interests.[43]

Socialization is another sociological process reflected through formal association participation. Socialization is the process of teaching the individual, through various relationships, to adjust himself to living in his society.

> In the simpler rural society of the past, the number of groups with which a person was identified was relatively small. He was a member of a particular family or kinship group by virtue of birth or adoption; he was identified with a particular neighborhood or locality group because of residence in it; and he was likely to belong to the church of his parents and to be identified as a member of a status group by the same token. These groups provided the basis for his orientation to the life of the community and to the larger society. They were the groups

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[43]Joseph Roucek and Roland Warren, Sociology, (New Jersey: Littlefield, Adams and Company, 1961), p. 179.

> that influenced his behavior and shaped his personality, and he had relatively little choice in the matter.
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> With the shift to the multiple-group condition that exists today in both urban and rural communities, the situation for the individual has changed. Family and neighborhood groups are still important determinants of basic behavior patterns, but the individual is now conditioned in large part by membership in or identification with a variety of special-interest groups that serve as points of reference.[44]

Today, many formal organizations (educational, church sponsored, etc.) serve as agencies of socialization. However, where socializing functions are viewed as binding members of a society together, discrimination is often viewed as disrupting them.

Both racial and religious differences provide incentives for group organizations. Broom explains that "many minority organizations are direct products of forced segregation. Negro schools, colleges, fraternities, and some unions and churches are perhaps the best examples."[45] Excluded from most fraternities and sororities, minority groups have established their own.

Although many minority organizations arise as products of imposed segregation, many ethnic associations arise as products of cultural distinctiveness. Religious and national organizations, with old-world ties, are formed by

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[44]Bertrand, op. cit., p. 338.

[45]Broom, op. cit., p. 490.

immigrants unfamiliar with their new country.

> In order to retain expression of their historic cultural values and in order to protest against their minority status in the United States, nationality groups have organized voluntary associations that function to satisfy these particular needs ... His churches and religious organizations enable the newcomer to worship God according to his traditional faith and to enjoy the ritual and the hymns in which he has been reared ... Fraternal benefit societies provide insurance in case of sickness or death. Singing and educational societies express his artistic and cultural interests. Clubs and lodges reflect his social needs.[46]

The American practice has been to acculturate and eventually assimilate its immigrants, and in time have these ethnic groups merge into the dominant culture. However, some groups are so like the American population that little acculturation is necessary while others are in language and other respects so different that acculturation sometimes takes many years or even generations. Formal associations, then, function to satisfy the needs of immigrants unfamiliar with their new country. However, at the same time, they often retard assimilation.

Perhaps, of the many sociological implications indicated by membership patterns in formal organizations, the most acknowledged implication is stratification. Warner states that a man's membership in associations, when

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[46]Arnold Rose (ed.), Race Prejudice and Discrimination, (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1951), p. 361.

evaluated and rated by his fellows, contributes to, and largely establishes his social-class position in the community:

> Certain "social" associations are sometimes organized and function to "draw lines" around large groups of people who are above the others in the community. Cliques are too informally organized and often too difficult to identify for these purposes. Associations, such as discussion groups, dining clubs, and the like, are organizations which emphasize status distinctions. They provide the best material for the placement of individuals by associational means.[47]

For many, status as members of a given club or organization may seem to them to have bearing upon their success in business or professional life. La Piere contends that individuals attach tremendous importance to belonging to the right club or organization.

> Status within the membership of a social group is meaningful to the individual only to the extent that he is treated in a way which differentiates him from people in general; he can be given differential treatment only by those who are capable of identifying him as a person occupying a particular status role and he can perceive such differential treatment only if he is in fairly direct contact with those who accord it to him.[48]

Many formal associations are widely recognized as symbols of class position. Nearly every community of any size has its high-prestige and its lower-prestige

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[47] Warner, op. cit., p. 85.

[48] La Piere, op. cit., p. 102.

associations. For example, Green explains how the type of organization may vary with social class:

> Upper-class people for the most part restrict such membership to "favorite charities" and recreational associations -- yachting club, polo club, and the like. It is in the upper reaches of the middle class that leadership is sought -- politics, Rotary, and the Chamber of Commerce. The entire middle class is active in church work, and lower reaches of it join such fraternal orders as the Masons and the Knights of Columbus. The Elks, Odd Fellows, and Woodmen attract workingmen, for the most part. People at the very bottom are without membership of any kind.[49]

Warner gives a similar explanation on how the type of organization will vary with social class. Church associations tend to spread through several classes, but ordinarily, they are filled with people from the lower half of society. Secret societies are usually lower than occupational and social groups. Patriotic societies tend to include all levels of social classes. Associations which emphasize history are more highly placed than patriotic or church societies and auxiliaries ordinarily have more members who are lower in class than the parent organization.[50]

In Table I, Warner lists associations and concentration of membership based on social class. For instance, the Monday and Rotary Clubs are ranked very high (1), D.A.R., Hospital Aid and Country Club are rated high (II),

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[49]Green, op. cit., p. 211.

[50]Warner, op. cit., pp. 90-92.

TABLE I

Preliminary Class Distribution by Warner of Selected Associations and Churches*

		U	UM	LM	UL	LL
I	Monday Club	50%	50%			
I	Rotary	16.7%	80.6%		2%	
II	D.A.R.	57.1%	4.3%	28.6%		
II	Hospital Aid	51.6%	32.8%	15.6%		
II	Country Club	29.9%	27.7%	42.3%		
III	Masons	14.7%	19%	65.3%		
III	Lions	4.8%	23.8%	71.4%		
IV	Odd Fellows	2.2%	20%	42.2%	35.6%	
IV	American Legion Auxiliary	1.6%	11.1%	63.5%	22.2%	1.6%
IV	Eastern Star		8.3%	91.7%		
IV	Girl Scout Mothers		9.3%	50%	35.2%	5.5%
V	Royal Neighbors			69%	28.2%	2.8%
VI	Polish National Alliance			8.3%	83.4%	8.3%
VII	Free Methodists				100%	
VII	Gospel Tabernacle				87.5%	12.5%

*Lloyd Warner, Social Class In America, (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949), p. 95.

Masons and Lions Club fall above average (III), Odd Fellows, American Legion, Auxiliary Eastern Star, Girl Scout Mothers are ranked average (IV), and the group which is below average (V) includes those associations with a strong concentration in the upper-lower class or those with a strong downward spread from a lower-middle-class concentration (Royal Neighbors and Baptist Mission). The next level (VI) has more concentration at the upper-lower level (Polish National Alliance). The lowest level (VII) is entirely upper-lower or lower-lower (Free Methodists and Gospel Tabernacle).

Membership in a organization is real and can be measured. It connects the individual in real relations with other members of an organization and ultimately with other members of the larger community.

CHAPTER III

THE MILITARY COMMUNITY

This chapter is comprised of two sections. The first section has as its purpose a discussion of changes which have occurred in American military activities. The second section presents functional aspects that relate to the joining habits of military personnel.

I. HISTORICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The Army at the beginning of World War II was composed of a small organization of officers and enlisted men more or less isolated from the democratic society which rather grudgingly supported it, and possessed institutional characteristics which contrasted sharply with the civilian life around it. Yet, this Army, little more than a blueprint in the beginning, was destined to become one of the mightiest force of arms the world has ever seen.[51]

> In the five years between Hitler's conquest of France in 1940 and the overthrow of Germany and Japan in 1945, the American Army grew from the strength of 16,624 officers and 249,441 enlisted men to 772,863 officers and 7,305,854 enlisted men.[52]

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[51] Samuel Stouffer, The American Soldier, (New Jersey, Princeton University Press, 1949), pp. 54-55.

[52] Ibid.

Stouffer, in his studies of the American soldier during World War II, explained why the Army appeared as a new world for most civilian recruits:

> Of its many contrasts with civilian institutions, three may be cited:
> 1. Its authoritarian organization, demanding rigid obedience.
> 2. Its highly stratified social system, in which hierarchies of deference were formally and minutely established by official regulation, subject to penalties for infraction, on and off duty.
> 3. Its emphasis on traditional ways of doing things and its discouragement of initiative.[53]

In the transition from the old Army to the new, education played a major role. It was discovered that the average enlisted man in the new Army had a higher educational level compared to the enlisted man in the old Regular Army. Although the reservoir of higher education was an asset in reducing training time for a host of technical and semiprofessional jobs which were not in existence earlier, it was found that the better educated men, with high levels of personal expectation, were to be harder than others to satisfy with Army jobs making little use of their skills. They were more critical of traditional Army ways of doing things which seemed maladaptive to the needs of a new kind of war, and they experienced frustration if their status drives were not satisfied.[54]

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[53] Ibid.

[54] Ibid, p. 58.

> Many of the problems traceable to the contrasts between civilian ways and Army ways were accentuated by the fact that Army's institutional forms were adapted to a quality of man power different from that which it was assimilating at the time of Pearl Harbor and would assimilate thereafter.[55]

Social changes, also, have occurred within the military services since World War II. These changes can be explained in terms of variables that could apply to any professional group: (1) organizational and technological innovations, (2) social status and prestige, and (3) self-conceptions.

Organizational and technological changes within the military services have gradually altered some of the contrasts between civilian life and military life.

Traditionally, the military community was more sharply segregated from civilian life in the United States. This social isolation helped the military profession maintain its distinctive characteristics and values. In the "old Army", and in the "old Navy", occupation and family life were closely linked. The result was relative social isolation since military families tended to have more contact among themselves than with outsiders.[56]

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[55] Ibid, p. 57.

[56] Morris Janowitz, The Professional Soldier, (Illinois: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1960), pp. 175-176.

> The intimate social solidarity of the military profession, which civilians often both envy and resent, is grounded in a peculiar occupational fact. Separation between place of work and place of residence, characteristic of urban occupations, is absent. Instead, the military community is a relatively closed community where professional and residential life have been completely intermingled.[57]

In the post-World War II period, however, the Armed Forces purposely abandoned the idea of retaining major military establishments in remote areas; because, for the first time in peacetime history, the United States maintained large permanent military forces. It became evident that location of bases near fair-sized communities was a necessity. With increasing Air Force, Army, and Navy activities in all parts of the United States, family life of military members assumed increasingly larger proportions too. The military establishment could not begin to supply adequate housing, schools, recreation and religious facilities for all its personnel. Isolation of the base from the community became a thing of the past.

> After the close of World War II, family life on and around our Air Force bases began to assume increasing importance ... We saw the establishment of Wherry and Capehart housing projects as the demand for on-base and just off-base homes for officers and airmen increased ... At the present time, over 80 per cent of NCO's and airmen are married. The majority of them live off base in the communities adjacent to their station.[58]

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[57] Ibid, pp. 177-178.

[58] Orvil Anderson (ed.), "The Air Force Family And The Community," The Airpower Historian, X (July, 1963), p. 73.

Since the military post can no longer accommodate all its personnel, social cohesion within the military community has weakened. First, there has been an increasing trend toward the civilian pattern of separation of work and residence. Also, military personnel are now more often stationed at civilian institutions (research, industrial, and educational) away from military communities. Second, the sheer increase in numbers makes it more difficult to maintain professional solidarity; the size of many installations has grown to the point where they take on some of the impersonal characteristics of an urban metropolis, and at the same time, the more representative social recruitment has meant a decline in the sense of social exclusiveness.[59]

> In the past, when the officer corps was dominated by a Protestant Episcopalian upper middle-class background, the "outsider" either transformed themselves, or were few enough to be merely tolerated. With a larger number of officers from more humble social backgrounds, plus a greater variety of religious, ethnic, and racial backgrounds, the military community has become more of a melting pot.[60]

Third, while the old military community was composed almost exclusively of military personnel and their families, the contemporary military establishment has large numbers of civilians whose presence both enlarge and dilute the

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[59] Janowitz, op. cit., pp. 178-179.

[60] Ibid.

military community. Civilians fill some 700 occupations in the military, such as messengers, clerks, typists, barbers, technical assistants, hospital, and training. Chief scientists are used in logistics, medical research and development, communications, and others.[61]

Although there has been many organizational and technological changes within the military profession, prestige of the American soldier has been slow to change. The average citizen usually receives his personal knowledge of the military either through personal experience in military service or through direct or indirect contacts at the community level. This is where, for the most part, basic attitudes and opinions are formed and which, collectively, affect national attitudes.

Janowitz, in his study of the military profession, discovered that the civilian image of the American soldier remains firmly rooted in the past:

> His style of life, his day-to-day tasks, and his aspirations change as the technology of war is transformed. Yet, outdated and obscure conceptions of the military establishment persist because civilian society, including alert political public, prefer to remain uninformed ... In the United States the military profession does not carry great prestige ... Yet one of every two adult civilians said that he would be pleased if his son pursued a career in the military services. Generally, the public prestige of

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[61]Donald McBride, "The Military In American Life", The Airpower Historian, X (July, 1963), p. 77.

> the military is similar to that accorded government employees; the less educated and the younger among the public hold the military, along with government employees, in higher esteem. Thus, whatever else the public may think of the military profession, it sees it as another career opportunity, and as one which offers an opportunity for social mobility for the socially underprivileged.[62]

The results of a national sampling of opinion in 1955 placed the prestige of the officer in the armed services below that of physician, scientist, college professor, minister and public school teacher, while the enlisted man in the armed services was ranked between a garage mechanic and a truck driver. Teenagers held both officers and enlisted men in somewhat higher esteem than adults by rating the officer above the school teacher and ranking the enlisted man between a bookkeeper and a mail carrier.[63]

Over a period of time, common patterns tend to emerge in the way in which a profession views itself. However, Janowitz claims that:

> Every profession assigns to itself a higher status than outsiders would be willing to concede, and every leadership group has a self-image which fails to correspond to the image the public holds.[64]

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[62] Janowitz, op. cit., pp. 3-4.

[63] Ibid, p. 227.

[64] Ibid, p. 225.

There is some evidence that this concept holds true for military officers, because references are made to link their profession and the ministry. In a letter written to his son, a retired naval captain wrote the following analogy:

> The naval profession is much like the ministry. You dedicate your life to a purpose. You wear the garb of an organized profession. Your life is governed by rules laid down by the organization. You renounce your pursuit of wealth. In a large measure you surrender your citizenship; renounce politics; and work for the highest good of the organization. In the final analysis your aims and objects are quite as moral as any minister's because you are not seeking your own good, but the ultimate good of your country. You train the men under you to be good and useful citizens, and, like the minister, what you say must conform to the rules of the organization.[65]

Two thoughtful officers addressed themselves to the question of military life as a profession in a recent magazine article. Major Paul Briand and Captain Malham Wakin, both members of the faculty at the Air Force Academy, wrote the following statements:

> If the military wishes to ensure for itself the dignity and prestige which it rightly deserves because of its very purpose for being, then it must assume certain responsibilities. It must squarely face the issue of vocations as any thinking human being must in any type of work. It must be convinced that the values at stake are worth a total commitment. If it wishes to merit the respect of others, it must first respect itself; and internal respect for the

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[65] Ibid, p. 115.

> military way of life begins when all servicemen view it not as a job, not as a profession, but as a vocation ... If the American way of life is really more important than life itself, then the military life is, indeed, a noble calling. The vocation of arms deserves the total dedication of thoughtful men and the respect of free men everywhere.[66]

In time of war, the man in uniform is a hero to almost every civilian. The soldier is cast in the role of a fearless protector of his country, risking his life so that others may live. This role is universal wherever the soldier serves. To some extent this great prestige compensates for the soldier's loss of other freedoms, but in peacetime, the soldier too often loses this prestige.

As long as the military was relatively isolated from civilian society, and comprised no more than a small homogeneous organization, prestige and self-esteem rested more on internal standards, and what the public thought mattered less. However, today's greater civilian contacts mean that the military's self-esteem and self-image depends to a greater extent on public attitudes and popular opinion.

II. FUNCTIONAL ASPECTS OF JOINING IN MILITARY LIFE

The military's motivations for joining community organizations and clubs may be viewed as being similar to

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[66]Paul Briand and Malham Wakin, "The Vocation Of Arms", Air Force And Space Digest, 46 (July, 1963), p. 47.

civilian motivations. Military members are interested in gaining prestige, in meeting their educational, recreational, and religious needs, and promoting civilian-military relationships.

The professional soldier, like every career man, is interested in enhancing the prestige of his profession. Since military members are usually denied access to social clubs of high prestige, because of their rootlessness, efforts have been made by the military to gain access to newer elites, particularly to scientific and academic circles.[67]

The educational needs and aspirations of children draw military members into community affairs. This is why the search for opportunities to educate their children provides military personnel with one of their major contacts with life in the surrounding community.

Both recreational and religious facilities exist as a part of the military community. Limited facilities, however, lead to membership participation in civilian groups, especially for members living off base.

With the "cold war" becoming perhaps the permanent condition of world affairs for the present generation, satisfactory military-civilian relations become important.

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[67]Janowitz, op. cit., p. 205.

An area of civic participation where the military normally plays a significant part is in community charity organizations. Although most military members participate in welfare organizations, efforts to promote better military relations with adjoining communities is often found to be the responsibility of military leaders. Military commanders must be prepared to work out accommodations with local communities, as exemplified by the following account:

> When we first got to Plain City, all the local people were interested in was the money they'd get out of the Air Force. We put on a conscious campaign to get Plain City on the ball. We had several staff officers join each of the civic clubs. We used psychology on them, kept telling them what a wonderful reception they were giving the men -- all the dances, parties, and so on, to keep the boys off the streets -- while actually they were doing nothing. This made them wonder who was doing all this and they got busy themselves. Now they have dances at the club for officers and a club for enlisted men in town. Police, instead of throwing men in the jug, now call up the base and say "come and get him". The police try to soft pedal the behavior of military personnel and say they "really aren't bad".[68]

There are also functional aspects of joining in military life which tend to thwart membership participation in civilian organizations. For instance, constant turnover of personnel as a result of job rotation and change of bases, prevent an opportunity to develop stable contacts

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[68] Ibid, p. 207.

or gain access to elite groups within the social strata.

Highly organized social life on military bases further curb memberships in civilian organizations. Much of the military social life is planned within the Officers' club, NCO and Airmen's clubs. The military style of life strives for social cohesion for a profession that is continually preoccupied with the threat of danger requires a strong sense of solidarity if it is to operate effectively.

Also, traditionally, neutrality has been expected of military members in political views and political affiliations. Military men are expected to be above political strife, for in time of crisis, they are counted on to be loyal to the government in power.

These aspects of military life tend to discourage membership participation in civilian organizations and clubs.

CHAPTER IV

SELECTED REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Much has been written in regard to the extent of voluntary association membership and participation in formal organizations, but only the research literature closely related to this thesis will be reviewed. An effort will be made to present different approaches used in investigating this area of research.

I. LITERATURE ON VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATION MEMBERSHIP AND PARTICIPATION

Komarovsky conducted a study of organized group affiliations of 2,223 adult residents of New York City.[69] The purpose of the study was to acquire data in order to recognize differences in participation on the part of various social classes. The questionnaire which supplied the data for this investigation consisted of one long sheet of paper requesting a list of all organizations, clubs, union, churches, and other societies to which the respondent belonged. It provided space for describing the character of the organization and the place of meetings.

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[69] Mirra Komarovsky, "The Voluntary Associations of Urban Dwellers," American Sociological Review, 11 (December, 1946), pp. 686-698.

The respondent was also asked to indicate at the bottom of the page his occupation, income, religion, educoation, nativity, sex and age. No signature was required. Questionnaires were distributed to employed persons at their places of work in 1934 and 1935. Among those co-operating were the office workers of the Mutual Life Insurance Company, the sales staff of Macy's Department Store, nurses and physicians of two hospitals, employees of several factories and others. The sample was a composite picture of the major economic classes. Twenty-nine per cent of the total questionnaires were returned. The results of the study revealed that only 32 out of every 100 unskilled workers belonged to any organization, while 98 per cent of the professional men earning $5,000 and over belonged to one or more affiliations and only two per cent failed to list any. Forty-four per cent of the skilled, forty-seven per cent of the white collar worker, sixty-seven per cent of the business men and 68 per cent of the professional men earning under $3,000 had one or more affiliation. Sixty per cent of the working class and 53 per cent of white collar men in this study did not have a single organized group affiliation with the exception, perhaps, of a church.[70]

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[70] Ibid.

A similar study was made by Axelrod of social participation in the urban structure. Data were obtained from a cross-section sample representative of the Detroit area with a total population of 1,839,000. The sample size totaled 749 and was selected by the method known as "area sampling". His purpose of study was to determine the number of formal group memberships; the extent of formal group participation; and the extent of formal group participation by selected characteristics such as family income, education and occupation. Also, he was interested in certain types of informal groups other than the immediate family. Some general conclusions were reached as a result of this study. It was discovered that nearly two-thirds (63 per cent) of the population were members of formal groups. One-half of all the members belonged to only one group while three-fourths of all the members belonged to one or two groups. Although membership was widespread, comparatively few people belonged to more than one group. Findings relating to participation in formal groups revealed that one-fourth of the members had not attended any meetings during the three months preceding the study. One-third of the members had attended meetings rarely; one-fourth had attended frequently; and one-fifth were considered very active. The very active members held office or were committee members. Three-fourths of the popula-

tion who had some college had formal group membership. One-half of the population who had a grade school level education had no formal group membership.[71]

In 1953 Bell and Force made a study on participation in different types of formal associations.[72] The purpose of their investigation was to determine the relationship between membership in certain types of interest groupings, as revealed by formal association membership, and certain positions in the social structure, as revealed by residence in certain types of neighborhoods. Data in this study were collected in four San Francisco census tracts. Random samples were selected from a complete list of all the dwelling units in each of the tracts, and a total of 701 interviews were completed which were equally divided between the four tracts. The respondents were males over the age of 21, and the total response rate exceeded 85 per cent. The findings were similar to other studies, such as Komarousky. Regardless of neighborhood, urbanite membership behavior proved to be largely dependent upon a special interest shared with people of similar status. Memberships

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[71]Morris Axelrod, "Urban Structure and Social Participation," American Sociological Review, 21 (February, 1956), pp. 13-18.

[72]Wendell Bell and Maryanne Force, "Social Structure And Participation in Different Types of Formal Associations," Social Forces, 34 (May, 1956), pp. 345-350.

in recreational, patriotic, church connected, nationality, welfare and charitable, civic, political, hobby, and neighborhood improvement associations occurred more frequently in high income neighborhoods. Labor union ranked first in number of memberships in the two low economic status neighborhoods, while fraternal organizations ranked second in all four neighborhoods with the greatest percentage of memberships in the two high economic status neighborhoods. Most of the significant differences in associational behavior were accounted for by differences in neighborhood economic status rather than by differences in neighborhood family status.[73]

Scott, in his study, addressed the problem of the relation between variations in sex, age, education, religion, occupation, marital status, family status, friends, nativity, residence, home tenure, and social status to variations in the degree to which persons participated in voluntary associations. The field research was conducted by the author and his wife in the New England town of Bennington, Vermont during the month of September, 1947. The community then had a population of 7,628 (3,671 males and 3,957 females). Of the total population, 92 per cent were native white, almost 8 per cent were foreign born, 5 per cent

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[73] Ibid.

Negro, and 1 per cent Chinese. A 5 per cent random sample was used. The sample was secured by selecting persons, ten years of age or older, living in every twentieth dwelling unit to respond to a schedule of twenty-two basic questions. The conclusions of the data revealed that approximately two-thirds or 64.2 per cent of the population were members of one or more voluntary associations, other than church. It was found that 35.8 per cent of the persons in the sample had no membership in a voluntary association, other than church. Some comparable percentages of non-affiliation found in related research are: Goldhamer in Chicago, 35; the Detroit area study, 37; the Lynds in Middletown, 42; Bushee in Boulder, 48; Komarousky among employed adults in New York City, 52; and Warner and Lunt in Newbury, 59. Some further conclusions reached by Scott were that membership participation in voluntary associations increased significantly with education and social status; that Protestants had more memberships than Catholics; men had more memberships than women; married people had greater participation than single people; couples with no children or two or more children had more memberships; and that the length of residence in the community had no significant influence on membership

participation.[74]

Bushee's study measured the extent of formal association participation by investigating membership lists in Boulder, Colorado. Boulder had a total of 268 organizations with an aggregate membership of 17,324 or an average of 65 members for each organization. If churches were omitted, there were 245 organizations with a total membership of 11,952, or 49 members each. This exceeded the number reported for "Middletown" where 363 adult organizations were counted, or one for approximately 73 adult inhabitants. A study of these organizations threw some light on the basic motives which induced individuals to join associations. The basic motives are listed below:

1. Religious interest. (This interest seemed to be the strongest. Men joined churches in approximately the same ratio with women; yet, women participated more in the subordinate religious societies).

2. Desire for self-improvement.

3. Desire for social relations. (This motive was stronger in women than men. It was believed that men may satisfy this need in work contacts).

4. Desire for recognition. (There was a desire to be admitted to a group, to feel important, or to gain social prestige).

5. Desire for social or community improvement.

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[74]John Scott, "Membership and Participation in Voluntary Associations," American Sociological Review, 22 (October, 1957), pp. 528-533.

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[74]John Scott, "Membership and Participation in Voluntary Associations," American Sociological Review, 22 (October, 1957), pp. 528-533.

Some general conclusions reached were that 71 per cent of the population belonged, on the average, to two groups each and 29 per cent belonged to none. Nearly one-half of the adult population (48 per cent) either did not belong to any organized group or belonged to a church only. The decline was rapid for adults belonging to more than three organizations.[75]

A very comprehensive study was conducted by Wright and Hyman on voluntary association memberships of American adults. (The review of this investigation will be covered more extensively, for it is closely related to this plan of study.) The purpose of their study was to present evidence bearing on the pattern of memberships of adult Americans in general, and of specific sub-groups such as racial and religious minorities. In addition, they were interested in some correlates of membership which might be considered determinants such as socio-economic status, urban or rural residence, and interest in politics, voting, and charitable activity. Data were secured from a number of nationwide and local surveys conducted by the National Opinion Research Center which contained one or more questions on voluntary association memberships. The analysis of this study was based on two national probability

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[75]Frederick Bushee, "Social Organization in a Small City," American Journal of Sociology, 8 (July, 1945 to May, 1946), pp. 217-226.

samples of the adult, non-institutionalized population of the United States, over 21 years of age. The first sample contained 2,809 men and women, and the second 2,379. These studies were conducted in the years of 1953 and 1955. In addition to the national data, findings on voluntary association membership were available for representative samples from NORC studies of various localities, such as a large metropolitan area (New York metropolitan area) represented by a probability sample of 1,053 cases drawn in 1951; and a medium sized Western metropolis (Denver) represented by a probability sample of 920 cases obtained in the spring of 1949. Data from the national surveys confirmed the conclusions drawn by previous researchers based on local studies, which revealed that voluntary association membership was not a major characteristic of Americans. Nearly half of the families (47 per cent) and almost two-thirds of the respondents (64 per cent) belonged to no voluntary associations. About a third of the families (31 per cent) and a fifth of the respondents belonged to only one such organization. About a fifth of the families (21 per cent) and a sixth of the respondents belonged to two or more organizations. These findings hardly warrant the impression that Americans are a nation of joiners.

Data on the types of organizations to which Americans

> belong are also revealing. In the 1953 survey, which contained an account of organizations to which any family member belonged, only two (unions and fraternal or secret societies) have relatively large memberships, 23 per cent and 19 per cent respectively. Next in order are neighborhood-ethnic-special interest groups (8 per cent), veterans' organizations (7 per cent), civic organizations (5 per cent), church sponsored organizations (3 per cent), youth organizations (2 per cent) and professional and learned societies (2 per cent). These findings provide national perspective on the data recorded by former studies of local populations, such as the Detroit Area Study, in which unions and fraternal organizations also accounted for more of the citizens' voluntary memberships than any other type of organization.[76]

Findings on the Negro racial subgroup revealed that voluntary association membership is somewhat more characteristic of whites than Negroes. Less than one-half (46 per cent) of the white families and 63 per cent of the white respondents belonged to no associations in contrast to 60 per cent of the Negro families and 73 per cent of the Negro adults. Twenty-three per cent of the white families belonged to two or more organizations in contrast to only 11 per cent of the Negro families.

On the major religious subgroups, the findings revealed that whether measured on a family or individual basis, the highest rate of membership was found among Jews. The next highest participants in voluntary associations

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[76]Charles Wright and Herbert Hyman, "Voluntary Association Membership of American Adults," American Sociological Review, 23 (June, 1958), pp. 284-294.

were Catholics (56 per cent), and the least active were Protestants with 51 per cent. Data on individual membership are different with a higher percentage of Protestants than Catholics belonging to any organizations. Data from local studies of New York City and Denver gave some interesting comparisons on the above national data on memberships of religious subgroups. In both cities, the membership agreed with the national sample on individual memberships. The rate of membership was highest for Jews, next for Protestants and lowest for Catholics.

From national surveys, data supported previous findings in studies of positive correlation between social status and membership. Table II presents data on the membership of the 1955 sample which is classified by the following five indices of social status: family income, education, interviewer's rating of family's level of living, occupation of head of household, and home ownership. Regardless of the index of social status used, the findings revealed that persons in higher status positions belonged to more voluntary associations than persons of lower status positions. In addition, there was an increase in the percentages of persons belonging to several organizations as social status increased. In the lowest income group, 7 per cent belonged to two or more associations in contrast to 30 per cent of the highest income group.

TABLE II

Wright's Analysis of Indices of Stratification and Voluntary Association Membership, 1955*

	Per Cent Who Belong to:			
	No Organization	One Organization	Two or More	No. of Cases (100%)
A. Income level				
Under $2,000	76	17	7	385
2,000-2,999	71	17	12	304
3,000-3,999	71	18	11	379
4,000-4,999	65	21	14	450
5,000-7,499	57	22	21	524
7,500-and over	48	22	30	328
B. Education				
0-6 years	83	12	5	348
7-8 years	73	17	10	522
9-11 years	67	20	13	495
12 years	57	23	20	610
1-3 years of college	46	24	30	232
4 years of college or more	39	25	36	170
C. Level of Living (Interviewer's rating)				
Very low	92	7	1	125
Below average	81	14	5	580
Average	61	22	17	1,318
Above average	43	25	32	288
Very high	18	18	64	44
D. Occupation				
Professional	47	24	29	259
Prop., mgrs., officials	47	24	29	294
Farm owners	58	28	14	265
Clerical and sales	59	21	20	240
Skilled labor	68	19	13	447
Semi-skilled labor	77	14	9	492
Service	73	18	9	142
Non-farm labor	79	16	5	155
Farm labor	87	13	0	54
Retired, unemployed	77	11	12	35
E. Home Ownership				
Owns home	57	22	21	1,407
Rents	75	16	9	968

Data exclude union membership

*Charles Wright and Herbert Hyman, "Voluntary Association Memberships of American Adults," American Sociological Review, 23:284-294, 1958.

Findings on urbanism and voluntary association membership (taken from NORC Survey, 1953), revealed that rural-urban differences in general are polarized, being greatest in both highly urban and highly rural counties and least in partially urbanized areas.

Data from the Denver survey revealed influence of some situational factors on voluntary association membership. Table III presents data which reveal the effect of length of residence in the community, residential mobility, type of residence, travel time to work and family status, and their effects on membership. It was found that none of the residential factors showed a relationship with the incidence of affiliation with voluntary associations. Apartment dwellers were slightly more likely to be voluntary association members than persons renting houses. Only two situational factors, home ownership and family status, had any noticeable effect on membership in voluntary associations. The findings revealed that home ownership as a determinant of membership was related to social stratification. Those who owned their homes belonged to more voluntary associations. The data on family status showed that married persons were more likely to be members of organizations than single persons and married persons with children were more likely to be members than childless couples.

TABLE III

Analysis of Some situational Determinants of Voluntary Association Membership:

Wright's Denver Survey*

	Percentage of Each Type Who Belong To Voluntary Associations	No. of Cases in Base
A. Residential history		
Born in Denver or lived there at least 20 years	65	504
Lived in Denver less than 20 years	62	404
Lived in Denver at present address over 20 years	63	200
Lived at present address 5 to 20 years	67	346
Lived at present address less than 5 years	60	358
B. Residential mobility		
Moved to Denver from place of under 2,500 population	61	272
Moved from place of 2,500 to 25,000 population	60	205
Moved from place larger than 25,000	64	281
C. Type of residence		
Single family house rented	57	81
Multiple family dwelling, rented	59	165
Apartment building, rented	60	117
Owned, all types of dwelling	67	512
D. Travel time to work		
45 minutes or more daily	60	81
35-44 minutes	70	185
30-34 minutes	64	256
25-29 minutes	66	192
Less than 25 minutes	57	205
E. Family status		
Men: Not married	66	79
Married, no children under 18 years old	74	182
Married, with children under 18 years old	82	162
Women: Not married	51	149
Married, no children under 18 years old	53	174
Married, with children under 18 years old	56	174

*Charles Wright and Herbert Hyman "Voluntary Association Membership of American Adults," American Sociological Review, 23:284-294, 1958.

Wright and Hyman gave a list of their major findings in abbreviated form. These major findings will be listed, and in each case, the major source of data (national or local survey) will be indicated in parentheses.

(1) Voluntary association membership is not characteristic of the majority of Americans (National).
(2) A relatively small percentage of Americans belong to two or more voluntary associations (National).
(3) Membership is more characteristic of the white than Negro population (National).
(4) Membership is more characteristic of Jewish than Protestant persons, and of Protestant than Catholics (National).
(5) Membership is directly related to socio-economic status, as measured by level of income, occupation, home ownership, interviewer's rating of level of living, and education (National).
(6) Membership is more characteristic of urban and rural non-farm residents than of rural farm residents (National).
(7) Membership does not appear to be related to a variety of situational factors, for example, length of residence in the community, length of residence at the same address, type of dwelling unit, commuting time to work (Denver).
(8) Membership is related to family status, being higher for couples with children than without (Denver).
(9) Membership is accompanied by a greater interest in such public affairs as unemployment problems, city planning, and public schools (Denver).
(10) Membership is associated with voting in Presidential, Congressional, and local elections (Denver).
(11) Membership is associated with support for local charities (Denver).[77]

[77] Ibid, p. 294.

CHAPTER V

STATEMENT OF HYPOTHESES

This chapter has as its purpose a statement of hypotheses pertaining to membership and participation of a military group in voluntary associations. Consideration is also given, in this chapter, to sociocultural factors that tend to influence membership affiliation.

I. MEMBERSHIP AND MILITARY STATUS

The first question is directed to the problem of whether or not military status is related to membership in voluntary associations.

A survey of the literature relating to the subject matter of this plan of study has been carefully considered. It has been established, as a statistical uniformity, that in a variety of populations high socio-economic status persons have more memberships than low socio-economic status persons. In these studies, factors such as income, education, and occupation were viewed as an index to a person's power position in the social structure.

This class system bears a resemblance to that which prevails in the military services. In a military group there are differences in the socio-economic status of an airman third class and a senior master sergeant and between

a first lieutenant and a colonel. However, the major division is between officers and noncommissioned officers. For example, annual income for military members range from under $2,000 for airmen third class to at least $5,000 for senior master sergeants and from $8,000 for first lieutenants to over $15,000 for colonels.

Similarly, the educational level of military members increase with rank. A sample tabulation of 1944 revealed a comparative educational background of officers and enlisted men in the Army. Sixty-seven per cent of the officers and eleven per cent of the noncommissioned officers were men who had attended college. Twenty-five per cent of the officers and thirty per cent of the enlisted men were high school graduates, only.[78]

Income and education for military members, then, like civilian society, tends to increase as social status increases. In addition, military occupations are considered comparable to civilian society; for, occupational specialization of the military has become more complicated as well as more transferable to civilian society. Military type occupations for enlisted men accounted for 93.2 per cent of the personnel in the Civil War but by 1954, only 28.8 per cent of the Army enlisted personnel were engaged

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[78]Stouffer, op. cit., p. 246.

in purely military occupations. This pattern holds for the officer groups as well as for all the armed services.[79]

Since the new tasks of the military occupational subculture require their members to develop more and more the skills and orientations common to civilians, military status will be viewed as being comparable to general socio-economic classes within the society. In addition, since there has been an increasing trend toward the civilian pattern of separation of work and residence, the social behavior of the military will also be viewed as comparable to the non-military society.

The hypotheses, then, guiding the extent of membership of a military group in voluntary organizations will be based on the concept of narrowing differential social status and social behavior between military and civilian groups.

Therefore, a hypothesis of this study is that membership of a military group will increase as military status increases. More specifically, the hypotheses measuring the extent of membership in voluntary associations are as follows: (1) officers will have more memberships than non-commissioned officers; (2) colonels will have more

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[79]Janowitz, op. cit., p. 64

memberships than first lieutenants; and (3) senior master sergeants will have more memberships than airmen third class. Taken together, these hypotheses suggest that the findings will reveal a significant and positive relationship between membership in voluntary associations and socio-economic status or rank.

Determinants of social rank frequently used by social scientists along with income, education and occupation are (1) amount of participation in voluntary organizations and (2) type of organizational affiliation.

Membership and meetings attended over a period of time are considered the more obvious manifestations of social participation in formal organizations and clubs. Attending the meeting of organizations of which an individual is a member suggests greater involvement than mere membership. Greater participation, over a period of time, would be expected by those individuals having more memberships in voluntary association.

Since evidence has revealed that as socio-economic status increases, memberships increase, then the hypothesis would be as follows: Officers will attend more meetings, over the period of one year, than enlisted men.

Formal associations serve to emphasize status distinctions and are useful for placing individuals within the social structure. Since one's position within the social

structure can be measured by organizational affiliations, with what social strata do the officers and enlisted men develop an affiliation and common interest? Do military men, through organizational affiliations, identify with a particular social class?

In general, those who possess more memberships in formal organizations possess high status symbols: higher income, more education, prestige occupations and affiliations associated with the upper classes.

By using Warner's list of organizations as being associated with social classes, it is possible to investigate the social strata officers and enlisted men from affiliations. Since officers have higher status characteristics than enlisted men, they are more likely to have more memberships in high status organizations. The hypothesis is, then, that officers have more affiliations with organizations associated with the upper classes than enlisted men.

II. SOCIOCULTURAL CORRELATES OF MEMBERSHIP

A second major question in this study is directed toward the problem of whether or not additional factors (age and marital status), independent of social class, influence membership participation.

Membership participation in voluntary associations

does not stop at any specific age, but the intensity of social participation does vary with age.[80] Age-related variations in voluntary association participation appears to be a function of interest and opportunity. Mayo suggests that the heavy demands of marriage and early family obligations appears to be a factor that explains the low level of social participation in the twenty- to thirty-year age group.[81] It is in this age group that primary interests tend largely to be personal and private. The middle-age adult is likely to turn his attention more and more to broader interest in contrast to personal interests. It is within this age group that identification with community interests are more likely to occur.

These conditions should also apply to a military group, with more memberships occuring in the over thirty age group. The hypothesis is that a military group from age thirty to fifty will have more memberships in voluntary associations than military members under age thirty.

Studies have also revealed that children are important in determining the extent of membership participation in formal associations. Scott, in his study, discovered that married people had greater participation than single

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[80]Bertrand, op. cit., p. 148.

[81]Ibid.

people and couples with no children or two or more children had more memberships.[82] Wright and Hyman found similar results in their study. The data on family status revealed that married persons were more likely to be members of organizations than single persons and married persons with children were more likely to be members than couples with no children.[83]

Therefore, for a military group, the hypothesis is that married men will have more memberships in voluntary associations than single men.

To summarize, the hypotheses governing this plan of study are as follows:

Hypothesis 1. Officers will have more memberships than noncommissioned officers.

Hypothesis 2. Colonels will have more memberships than first lieutenants.

Hypothesis 3. Senior Master sergeants will have more memberships than airmen third class.

Hypothesis 4. Officers will attend more meetings, over the period of one year, than enlisted men.

Hypothesis 5. Officers have more affiliations with organizations associated with the upper classes than enlisted men.

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[82]Scott, op. cit., pp. 528-533.

[83]Wright, op. cit., pp. 284-294.

Hypothesis 6. A military group from age thirty to fifty will have more memberships in voluntary associations than military members under age thirty.

Hypothesis 7. Married men with children will have more memberships in voluntary associations than single men.

CHAPTER VI

METHODOLOGY

This chapter is comprised of three parts. The first part presents a discussion of the sampling procedure used in this investigation. This is followed by an explanation of the method employed to collect the data. The last section explains the statistical methods utilized in analyzing the material collected.

I. SAMPLING PROCEDURE

The sampling procedure involved obtaining a random sample of a military group in Omaha, Nebraska. Six ranks (colonel, major, first lieutenant, senior master sergeant, technical sergeant, and airmen first class) were selected as a procedure for dividing the universe into useful strata, thereby, giving a hierarchy of social status groups. The stratified sampling technique was used. Goode and Hatt define the basic points involved in using the method of stratified sampling:

> While stratified sampling is placed here in distinction to random sampling, this does not mean that it does not employ randomness. Actually it depends upon randomness but combines this with another method calculated to increase representativeness. Because the method does improve representativeness it allows the use of a smaller sample than does simple random sampling, with greater precision and consequent savings in time and money ... There still remains the

> question of how to select the exact cases from within such strata, once they have been set up. This leads back to random sampling methods, since each of the subsamples is treated exactly like a universe as in the case of simple random sampling. Any of the randomization techniques ... can be applied within the strata.[84]

The subsamples or six ranks were randomly selected. Each of the six subsamples contained fifty people (N=300).

II. METHOD OF COLLECTING DATA

The mailed questionnaire technique of gathering data was used. The questionnaire was arranged in two parts. Part one was constructed to gather identifying data such as date of birth, marital status, education level, and other. Part two consisted of a sheet calling for a list of all formal organizations, clubs, and other societies to which the respondents belonged and total number of meetings attended in a year (organizations meeting weekly or monthly). A definition of concepts plus brief instructions on how to answer the questions was included in the questionnaire. (This questionnaire has been reproduced and placed in the Appendix).

In drawing up the questionnaire, Parten's suggestion of the value of other studies as comparable data was

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[84]William Goode and Paul Hatt, Methods in Social Research, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1952), pp. 221-222.

considered.[85] This insured that this study would be more meaningful because the results could be compared with findings of other similar or related studies.

The length of the questionnaire was carefully planned so that the questions could be answered easily and quickly. Goode and Hatt found that questionnaires, self-administered, should not require more than thirty minutes to complete and even less time would be more desirable.[86]

There were several factors considered in mailing the questionnaire. The questionnaires were mailed so that they would arrive on Friday or Saturday for it is believed that questionnaires are apt to receive more attention as the work week ends. They were not mailed during the summer months for members of a military group are more subject to transfers or vacation trips during this period. The questionnaires were mailed in February, 1963.

Jahoda indicated several advantages in using the mailed questionnaire technique of gathering data. The procedure is likely to be less expensive than the interview technique for less skill is needed for questionnaires since they are self-administering. By using the mailed

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[85]Mildred Parten, Surveys, Polls, and Samples, (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1939), p. 177.

[86]Goode, op. cit., p. 134.

questionnaire, a large number of individuals can be used in a study. Another advantage given by Jahoda was that the standardized wording of questions and instructions ensured some uniformity from one measurement situation to another.[87] Lundberg expressed an additional advantage of the mailed questionnaire in that it preserves the anonymity of the respondent.[88]

As an effort to insure an adequate return on questionnaires, this investigator enclosed a "cover letter" to solicit cooperation of the respondent. This letter was written on stationary carrying the letterhead of the University of Omaha indicating the backing of a prestige agency in the community. A letter contained a statement explaining the purpose of the questionnaire and the use of the data obtained. (A copy of the "cover letter" appears in the Appendix). Since military approval for this study was necessary, there was reason to believe that it might prove effective in bringing in returns on questionnaires if this examiner explained that the study had received the approval of the Base Commander. As a further effort to solicit cooperation, a self-addressed, stamped envelope

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[87] Marie Jahoda, Morton Deutsch and Stuart Cook, Research Methods in Social Research, (New York: The Dryden Press, 1951), p. 156.

[88] George Lundberg, Social Research, (New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1942), p. 182.

accompanied the mailed questionnaire.

III. STATISTICAL METHOD

The statistical methods used in the analysis of data consisted primarily of descriptive statistics and the testing of stated hypotheses.

The descriptive statistics used were the "mean", the "variance", and the "standard deviation."

Finding the mean involved a two step operation: (1) totaling the number of observations, and (2) dividing the result by the number of observations.

The computation of the arithmetic mean is expressed in formula form as: $\bar{X} = (\text{sum of}) \frac{X}{N}$

Where

$\bar{X}$ = arithmetic mean

X = data expressed as individual items

N = number of items

For this data, the mean was preferred over other measures of central tendency. In selecting a measure of central tendency, Huntsberger noted effects which should be considered.

> If the evaluation of a measure of location is a first step toward making inferences about the source of the data, the mathematical and distributional properties of the mean give it a distinct advantage. In the realms of statistical inference a primary consideration is statistical stability. It can be shown that if a large number of sets of data are

> taken from the same source, ... there will be less variation among the means than among the sets of either one of the other measures; hence, the mean is more stable. This, coupled with the fact that the mean is more amenable to mathematical and theoretical treatment, makes it an almost universal choice for all but purely descriptive purposes.[89]

The calculation of the variance and the standard deviation involved three steps: (1) the arithmetic mean was subtracted from each observation, (2) each of these deviations were squared, and (3) the sum of these squared deviations was divided by the total number of observations. This statistic computed is called the variance. It is symbolized by (s^2). The standard deviation is computed by taking the square root of the variance and is symbolized by (s).

The formula used for computing the variance is given below:[90]

$$s^2 = (\text{sum of}) \frac{x^2}{N-1}$$

The formula used for computing the standard deviation is given below:[91]

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{(\text{sum of}) \; x^2}{N-1}}$$

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[89] David Huntsberger, Elements of Statistical Inference, (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1961), p. 43.

[90] Allen Edwards, Statistical Analysis, (New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1959), p. 53.

[91] Ibid, p. 53.

To test the stated hypotheses, two measures of test statistics were used, (1) the F Test was used to test whether the variances of the two groups (officers and non-commissioned officers) were equal, and (2) the T Test for means was used to test the null hypothesis that no differences existed between means of the two groups. A significant difference in membership participation between officers and noncommissioned officers would be obtained whenever the null hypothesis was rejected.

The formula used for computing the F ratio of the sample variances is given below:[92]

$$F = \frac{s_1^2}{s_2^2} \quad \text{with } F(N_1 - 1), (N_2 - 1) \text{ degrees of freedom}$$

[92]Wilfrid Dixon and Frank Massey, Jr., Introduction to Statistical Analysis, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1957), p. 107.

The formula used for computing the T Test for means is given below:[93]

$$t = \frac{(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2) - (\ 1 - \ 2)}{\sqrt{s^2/N_1 \quad + \quad s^2/N_2}}$$

$$f = \frac{\left[\frac{s_1^2}{N_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{N_2}\right]^2}{\frac{\left[\frac{s_1^2}{N_1}\right]^2}{N_1+1} + \frac{\left[\frac{s_2^2}{N_2}\right]^2}{N_2+1}} - 2 \text{ degrees of freedom}$$

[93] Ibid., p. 124.

CHAPTER VII

FINDINGS

This chapter is presented in two parts. The first division discusses characteristics of the sample population. The last section presents membership and participation of a military group and testing of hypotheses.

I. CHARACTERISTICS OF SAMPLE POPULATION

The mailed questionnaires yielded a 47 per cent return. Data were obtained from six different military ranks; Colonel, Major, First Lieutenant, Senior Master Sergeant, Technical Sergeant and Airmen First Class.

Some interesting characteristics emerged from the sample population. For instance, 98 per cent of the sample population were white respondents compared to two per cent Negro respondents. All Negro respondents were members of the lowest rank, Airmen First Class. Data presented in Table IV revealed 138 white respondents, three Negro respondents and no Mongoloid respondents.

An examination of Table V indicates that most respondents with the ranks of Colonel, Major and Senior Master Sergeant fall in the 40-50 age category, Technical Sergeants in the 29-39 age category and First Lieutenants plus Airmen First Class falling within the 18-28 age

TABLE IV.

SAMPLE POPULATION CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO RANK AND RACE

	Race		
Rank	White	Negro	Other
Colonel	26	--	--
Major	25	--	--
First Lieutenant	25	--	--
Senior Master Sergeant	24	--	--
Technical Sergeant	22	--	--
Airmen First Class	16	3	--
Total	138	3	--

TABLE V.

SAMPLE POPULATION CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO RANK AND AGE CATEGORIES

	Age			
Rank	18-28	29-39	40-50	51-61
Colonel	--	--	24	2
Major	--	7	17	1
First Lieutenant	24	1	--	--
Senior Master Sergeant	--	11	12	1
Technical Sergeant	--	18	4	--
Airmen First Class	19	--	--	--
Total	43	37	57	4

category.

Table VI shows that the educational level of the sample tends to increase as social status increases. Whereas, nearly 67 per cent of the officers were college graduates, only six per cent of the enlisted men had college degrees. For the officers, two listed educational level attained as high school graduates, 23 listed some college, and 51 were college graduates. In contrast, five enlisted men listed some high school, 29 were high school graduates, and 27 listed some college. There were only four college graduates among enlisted men respondents.

Data secured on fathers' occupations were also revealing. Table VII gives the occupational categories most often listed as the occupations for the fathers of military officers. It is apparent that there is a tendency for the officers to come from families in which the fathers pursue occupations related to the professional and manager or official. These data are similar to Janowitz's findings.

Differences in religious affiliation are shown in Table VIII. Eighty-nine respondents listed their religious affiliation as Protestant, 45 Catholic, four nonaffiliated and only one listed Jewish affiliation. For officers, 58

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[94] Janowitz, op. cit., p. 91.

TABLE VI.

SAMPLE POPULATION CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO RANK AND EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

	Education			
Rank	Some High School	High School Graduate	Some College	College Graduate
Colonel	--	--	8	18
Major	--	1	11	13
First Lieutenant	--	1	4	20
Senior Master Sergeant	1	10	9	4
Technical Sergeant	3	8	11	--
Airmen First Class	1	11	7	--
Total	5	31	50	55

TABLE VII.

SAMPLE POPULATION CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO RANK AND FATHER'S OCCUPATION

	Father's Occupation						
Rank	Professional	Manager Official	Clerk	Sales	Craftsman Operative	Farmer	Laborer
Colonel	4	10	1	1	2	6	1
Major	8	4		1	8	4	
First Lieutenant	6	8			2	2	3
Senior Master Sergeant	4	3	1	1	5	9	1
Technical Sergeant	7	2	1	1	5	1	1
Airmen First Class	2	4			4	1	8
Total	31	31	3	4	26	23	14

TABLE VIII.

SAMPLE POPULATION CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO RANK AND RELIGION

	Religion			
Rank	Protestant	Catholic	Jewish	No Affiliation
Colonel	18	8	--	--
Major	20	3	1	1
First Lieutenant	20	5	--	--
Senior Master Sergeant	11	11	--	1
Technical Sergeant	10	10	--	1
Airmen First Class	10	8	--	1
Total	89	45	1	4

were Protestants and 16 were Catholics. Religious affiliations for noncommissioned officers were more evenly distributed with 31 Protestants and 29 Catholics respondents. Janowitz found the American officer to be overwhelmingly a Protestant group.[95] The findings in this study are similar for approximately 76 per cent of the officers listed Protestant as their religious affiliation.

Table IX gives data on the marital status of the sample population. There were 123 married respondents as compared to 18 single respondents. No military members had been divorced, widowed or separated.

The data on family status (Table X) indicate that 43 respondents had three or more children, 37 had two children, 20 had one child, and 14 had no children.

For both officers and noncommissioned officers, the total years of service tended to increase as rank increased. Table XI reveals that, for most officers, first lieutenants have less than five years service, majors 15 or under 20 years service and colonels 20 or under 25 years service. Noncommissioned officers indicated less than five years service for airmen first class, 15 or under 20 years service for technical sergeants and 20 or under 25 years service for senior master sergeants.

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[95] Ibid., p. 97.

TABLE IX.

SAMPLE POPULATION CALSSIFIED ACCORDING TO RANK AND MARITAL STATUS

	Marital Status				
Rank	Married	Single	Divorced	Widowed	Separated
Colonel	26	--	--	--	--
Major	25	--	--	--	--
First Lieutenant	18	7	--	--	--
Senior Master Sergeant	24	--	--	--	--
Technical Sergeant	21	1	--	--	--
Airmen First Class	9	10	--	--	--
Total	123	18	--	--	--

TABLE X.

SAMPLE POPULATION CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO RANK AND NUMBER OF CHILDREN

	Number of Children			
Rank	None	One	Two	Three or more
Colonel	--	5	12	9
Major	3	1	7	14
First Lieutenant	5	9	2	2
Senior Master Sergeant	2	1	9	12
Technical Sergeant	--	3	5	13
Airmen First Class	4	1	2	2
Total	14	20	37	43

TABLE XI.

SAMPLE POPULATION CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO RANK AND TOTAL YEARS SERVICE

Rank	Total Years Service					
	Less than 5 years	5 or under 10 years	10 or under 15 years	15 or under 20 years	20 or under 25 years	25 and over
Colonel				3	21	2
Major				18	7	
First Lieutenant	20	3				
Senior Master Sergeant			4	10	7	2
Technical Sergeant			9	12	1	
Airmen First Class	11	8				
Total	31	11	13	43	36	4

Type of residence, in relation to military rank, is presented in Table XII. Most colonels listed as their type of residence government housing. Most majors owned their homes. First Lieutenants, for the most part, rented their place of residence. Noncommissioned officers, however, almost exclusively lived in government housing.

Military status as described in Table XIII list 115 regular status respondents compared to 25 reserve status respondents. There were 50 officers with regular status and 25 with reserve status. All noncommissioned officers indicated regular status.

TABLE XII.

SAMPLE POPULATION CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO RANK AND HOME TENURE

	Home Tenure		
Rank	Own	Rent	Government Housing
Colonel	6	1	19
Major	16	2	7
First Lieutenant	3	21	1
Senior Master Sergeant	5		19
Technical Sergeant	8	5	9
Airmen First Class	3	7	9
Total	41	36	64

TABLE XIII.

SAMPLE POPULATION CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO RANK AND MILITARY STATUS

	Military Status	
Rank	Regular	Reserve
Colonel	24	2
Major	14	10
First Lieutenant	12	13
Senior Master Sergeant	24	
Technical Sergeant	22	
Airmen First Class	19	
Total	115	25

II. MEMBERSHIP AND PARTICIPATION OF A MILITARY GROUP

Data drawn by previous researchers revealed that a sizeable group of Americans are not members of any voluntary association and that only a minority belonged to more than one such organization.

Data which inquired about voluntary association membership of a military group are described in Table XIV. For officers, 15 indicated no membership in formal organizations, 17 listed one membership, nine listed two memberships, 10 listed three memberships and 21 listed four or more memberships in voluntary associations. For noncommissioned officers, 25 indicated no membership in formal organizations, 12 listed one membership, 10 listed two memberships, 10 listed three memberships and eight listed four or more memberships in voluntary associations.

For the total sample population or military group, approximately 27 per cent listed no membership in voluntary associations, 19 per cent listed membership in one organization, 12 per cent listed membership in two organizations, 13 per cent listed membership in three organizations and 22 per cent listed membership in four or more organizations. Approximately 74 per cent of the sample population were members of one or more voluntary associations, other than church. These findings tend to

TABLE XIV.

SAMPLE POPULATION CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO RANK AND MEMBERSHIP OF SIX MILITARY RANKS WHO BELONG TO ORGANIZATIONS AS INDICATED

	Membership of Six Military Ranks Who Belong To Organizations As Indicated					
No. of Voluntary Association	Col.	Major	1st.Lt.	SM/Sgt.	T/Sgt.	A/1c
None	3	6	6	5	8	12
One	4	5	8	3	6	3
Two	3	2	4	4	5	1
Three	4	3	3	6	2	2
Four or More	12	9	4	6	1	1

support conclusions drawn in similar studies. For instance, Scott found that approximately 64 per cent of the population were members of one or more voluntary associations, other than church, and that approximately 35 per cent of the population had no membership in a voluntary association. Some comparable percentages of nonaffiliation found in related research are: Goldhamer in Chicago, 35; the Detroit Area Study, 37; the Lynds in Middletown, 42; Bushee in Boulder, 48; Komarovsky among employed adults in New York City, 52; and Warner and Lunt in Newburyport, 59.[96]

III. MEASURING MEMBERSHIP AND MILITARY STATUS

Several studies have demonstrated a relationship between social status of respondents, as measured by a variety of indices, and membership in voluntary associations. These studies, in general, agree that there is an increase in the percentage of membership in formal associations the higher the social status of the respondents.

The socioeconomic status of a military group has been

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[96]Scott, op. cit., pp. 315-326.

dealt with in this study in terms of educational level, income, and hierarchy of rank. These attributes have been ordered in the direction of lower to higher status and characteristics of the sample population have confirmed that officers possess significantly higher socioeconomic status characteristics than enlisted men.

The hypotheses used to measure the extent of membership participation of a military group were as follows: (1) officers would have more memberships than noncommissioned officers; (2) colonels would have more memberships than first lieutenants; and (3) senior master sergeants would have more memberships than airmen first class.

In order to test stated hypotheses in this study, two measures of test statistics were used, (1) the F Test was used to test whether the variances of the two groups (officers and noncommissioned officers) were equal, and (2) the T Test for means was used to test the null hypothesis that no difference existed between groups. A significant difference was obtained whenever the null hypothesis was rejected at the .05 level of significance.

The statistical significance of whether officers have more memberships in voluntary associations than

noncommissioned officers was assessed by the T Test as indicated in Table XV. Since officers were discovered to have more memberships than noncommissioned officers, the null hypothesis was rejected at the .05 level.

There was no statistical evidence, however, to support the hypotheses that colonels have more memberships in voluntary associations than first lieutenants, as revealed in Table XVI, or that senior master sergeants have more memberships in voluntary associations than airmen first class, as revealed in Table XVII. The null hypotheses were accepted at the .05 level.

Determinants of social rank frequently used by social scientists along with income, education and occupation are (1) amount of participation in voluntary organizations and (2) type of organizational affiliation. Previous research has discovered that greater participation, over a period of one year, may be expected of individuals having more memberships in voluntary associations. Also, evidence suggests that the type of organization to which an individual is a member may serve to emphasize status distinctions and be useful in placing individuals within the social structure.

In regard to participation, it was hypothesized that

TABLE XV.

MEAN AVERAGE MEMBERSHIP FOR OFFICERS AND AIRMEN

	Rank	N	$\bar{X}$	S^2
Group I	Officers	76	2.7	4.968
Group II	Airmen	93	1.4	2.061

$t = 3.64$ $df = 92$

Significant at .05 level

TABLE XVI.

MEAN AVERAGE MEMBERSHIP FOR COLONELS AND FIRST LIEUTENANTS

	Rank	N	$\bar{X}$	S^2
Group I	Colonel	26	3.5	6.26
Group II	1st. Lt.	25	1.7	2.45

$t = .02$ $df = 92$

Significant at .05 level

TABLE XVII.

MEAN AVERAGE MEMBERSHIP FOR SENIOR MASTER SERGEANTS AND AIRMEN FIRST CLASS

	Rank	N	$\bar{X}$	S^2
Group I	Sr. M.Sgt.	.24	2.2	2.3
Group II	A/1C	19	.8	23.75

$t = 1.4$ $df = 92$

Significant at .05 level

officers would attend more meetings, over the period of one year, than enlisted men. Table XVIII reveals statistical evidence to support this hypothesis at the .05 level of significance.

Likewise, at the .05 level, Table XIX offers significant statistical evidence to support the hypothesis that officers have more affiliations with organizations associated with the upper classes than enlisted men.

IV. MEASURING SOCIOCULTURAL CORRELATES OF MEMBERSHIP

A second major question in this study was directed toward the problem of whether or not additional factors (age and marital status), independent of social class, influenced membership participation. As Table XX reveals, there was significant statistical evidence to support the hypothesis that a military group from age 30 to 50 has more memberships in voluntary associations than military members under age thirty. The null hypothesis was rejected at the .05 level.

Finally, Table XXI offers statistical evidence to support the hypothesis that married military members with children have more memberships in voluntary

TABLE XVIII.

MEAN AVERAGE PARTICIPATION FOR OFFICERS AND ENLISTED MEN

	Rank	N	$\bar{X}$	S^2
Group I	Officers	76	2.3	9.3
Group II	Airmen	65	2.4	10.

$t = -.019$ df = 92

Significant at .05 level

TABLE XIX.

MEAN AVERAGE AFFILIATIONS ASSOCIATED WITH UPPER CLASS FOR OFFICERS AND ENLISTED MEN

	Rank	N	$\bar{X}$	S^2
Group I	Officers	76	.8	.93
Group II	Airmen	65	.4	.29

$t = 3.3$ df = 92

Significant at .05 level

TABLE XX.

MEAN AVERAGE MEMBERSHIP FOR AGE OVER THIRTY AND AGE UNDER THIRTY

	Age	N	$\bar{X}$	S^2
Group I	Over 30	98	2	4
Group II	Under 30	43	1	1.9

$t = 3.57$ $df = 92$

Significant at .05 level

TABLE XXI.

MEAN AVERAGE MEMBERSHIP FOR MARRIED MEN WITH CHILDREN AND SINGLE MEN

	Marital Status	N	$\bar{X}$	S^2
Group I	Married with children	108	2	4.4
Group II	Single	18	1	1.6

$t = 2.77$ $df = 92$

Significant at .05 level

associations than single men. It may be surmised, then, that children are important in determining the extent of membership participation in formal organizations.

These findings revealed, in general, that military members with more memberships in formal organizations have high status symbols: higher income, more education, prestige occupations, attend more meetings and have affiliations associated with upper class.

CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter concludes the investigation with a brief summary and a discussion of the conclusions.

I. SUMMARY

The sample population for this study was composed of 300 individuals selected from a military base in Omaha, Nebraska.

Sampling procedure involved obtaining a random sample of six ranks (colonel, major, first lieutenant, senior master sergeant, technical sergeant, and airmen first class) as a means of dividing the universe into useful strata and acquiring a hierarchy of social status groups. The stratified sampling technique was used. Fifty names were randomly drawn from each of the six subsamples or ranks (N = 300).

The mailed questionnaire technique of gathering data was used. This questionnaire was constructed to gather identifying data (such as date of birth or educational level), a list of all formal organizations, clubs, and other societies to which respondents belonged,

and the total number of meetings attended in a year.

Approximately 50 per cent of the mailed questionnaires were returned, yielding a 47 per cent usable return. Several questionnaires were not used due to the fact that these respondents had either been promoted or had recently retired from military duty.

Statistical methods used in the analysis of data consisted primarily of descriptive statistics and the testing of stated hypotheses.

Some interesting characteristics emerged from the sample population. For instance, 98 per cent of the sample population were Caucasian compared to two per cent Negro. The educational level of the respondents tended to increase as military status increased. It was discovered that 67 per cent of the officers were college graduates. In contrast, only six per cent of the non-commissioned officers had graduated from college. There was a strong indication of marital stability among the married respondents since no military member had been divorced or separated. Another interesting characteristic of the sample population pertained to religious affiliation. It was found that religious affiliation for non-commissioned officers was almost evenly distributed

between Protestant and Catholic while 76 per cent of the officers listed Protestant as their religious affiliation.

II. CONCLUSIONS

This paper has explored, by means of a comparative approach, voluntary association membership of a military group as it related to other generalized groups in the society. Several significant conclusions are suggested by the results of this investigation.

First, there was statistical evidence to support the hypothesis that officers have more memberships in voluntary associations than enlisted men. This finding tends to support the conclusion previously established, as a statistical uniformity, that in a variety of populations high socioeconomic status persons have more memberships than low socioeconomic status persons.

Second, in regard to marital status, the results of this study gave statistical evidence that married respondents with children have more memberships in voluntary associations than single respondents. This finding, also, confirms results found in nonmilitary groups. Likewise, similar results were found in regard to age and membership participation. It was found that

military members age 30 to 50 had more memberships in voluntary associations than military members under age thirty.

Third, there was statistical evidence that officers had more affiliations with organizations associated with upper classes than enlisted men.

A pattern is apparent. The results of this investigation confirm the concept of narrowing differential social status and social behavior between military and civilian groups. This similarity of membership pattern may be explained by changes which have occured within the military community. The organizational alterations in the military establishment have gradually changed social relations. Social isolation of a military community is a thing of the past; for, the military community, no longer in a position to accommodate all its members, has forced many to seek residence in nearby communities. This major change in military life weakens both its professional and social solidarity.

In addition, due to greater transferability of military skills to civilian occupations, the professional soldier is more likely to judge himself, not only by the

standards of the military community, but also by the standards of civilian society. Today's greater civilian contacts mean that the military self-esteem and self-image depends to a greater degree on public attitudes and popular opinion. Therefore, the military motivations for joining community organizations associated with social class may be viewed as being similar to civilian motivations. Both are interested in gaining prestige and in meeting their educational, recreational, and religious needs.

In this study, it was discovered that officers have more affiliations with organizations associated with upper classes than enlisted men. This finding suggests that the military officer, like every career man, is interested in both enhancing the prestige of his profession as well as desiring to identify with the upper social class in the society.

This investigation is unable to explain, however, why statistical evidence failed to support the hypotheses that colonels have more memberships in voluntary associations than first lieutenants or that senior master sergeants have more memberships in voluntary associations than airmen first class. This result does not offer support

to the hypothesis that the extent of membership participation in voluntary associations increase as socioeconomic status increases.

The major findings of this study may be summarized as follows:

1. Approximately 74 per cent of a military group listed memberships in one or more voluntary association, other than church.
2. Officers have more memberships in voluntary associations than enlisted men.
3. Officers attend more meetings, over the period of one year, than enlisted men.
4. Officers have more affiliations with organizations associated with upper classes than enlisted men.
5. Military members from age 30 to 50 have more memberships in voluntary associations than military members under age thirty.
6. Military men with children have more memberships in voluntary associations than single members.

In summing up the results of this investigation, it is felt that there is no way of judging the validity of the hypotheses tested at this time. However, it is hoped that the statistical evidence presented in this paper will stimulate further research using other military groups. In future studies, it is believed that a follow up study of nonrespondents to the mailed questionnaire might shed additional light on the sample population. For instance,

did the nonrespondents have fewer memberships in voluntary associations?

It is also believed that membership patterns of other occupational subcultures would yield a fruitful area of sociological research.

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APPENDIX

OMAHA CHAMBER OF COMMERCE

Clubs and Organizations List

A.A.U. ASSOCIATION OF OMAHA

Bi-Monthly - Various Hotels

A.B.C. CLUB

1st & 3rd Friday Evening - Athletic Club

ADVERTISING CLUB OF OMAHA

2nd & 4th Tuesday - Castle Hotel

ADVERTISING SELLING LEAGUE

Monday Eve Dinner - Peony Park

AK-SAR-BEN COUNCIL

Meet on call - Various Places

AK-SAR-BEN KNIGHTS

Meetings on call

ALTRUSA CLUB OF OMAHA

2nd & 4th Thursday - Sheraton-Fontenelle

AMATEUR ATHLETIC ASSOCIATION (MIDWESTERN)

Bi-Monthly - Various Places

THE AMERICAN LEGION POST

#1 4th Tuesday - Various Places
#331 2nd Friday - Post Home
#112 2nd Thursday - Legion Hall, 61st & Lake St.

AMERICAN LEGION POST (CONT'D)

#112 (Auxiliary) Last Monday - Legion Hall
#190 Every other Wednesday - Woodson Center
#30 1st & 3rd Thursdays - 2404 Parker

ARTS, SOCIETY OF LIBERAL

Monthly - Joslyn Art Memorial

BANKERS ASSOCIATION (OMAHA)

On Call - Association office

BAR ASSOCIATION (OMAHA)

Bi-Monthly - Various Places

BARBERSHOP QUARTETTE SINGING IN AMERICA

Tuesday Evening - Sheraton-Fontenelle

BENSON COMMERCIAL CLUB

2nd & 4th Wednesday - Rice Bowl

BETA SIGMA PHI CITY COUNCIL

3rd Tuesday - Sheraton-Fontenelle

BETH EL SYNAGOGUE SISTERHOOD

2nd Tuesday - Beth El Synagogue

B'NAI BRITH

Last Wednesday - Various Hotels

BOOKS, OMAHA COUNCIL

Meet each two weeks

BOYS CLUB OF OMAHA, INC.

Upon request of President

BOY SCOUTS OF AMERICA

Bi-monthly - Various places

BUILDER'S EXCHANGE (OMAHA)

On Call

BUILDING OWNERS & MANAGERS ASS'N.

Tuesday - Regis Hotel

BUSINESS MEN'S ASS'N. OF OMAHA

Thursday - Castle Hotel

BUSINESS WOMEN, COUNCIL OF

2nd Thursday - YWCA

BUSINESS & PROFESSIONAL WOMEN'S CLUB

2nd & 4th Tuesday - Sheraton-Fontenelle

BURLINGTON VETERANS

1st Wednesday - Sokol Hall

BURLINGTON VETERANS AUXILIARY

1st Wednesday - Sokol Hall

CANCER SOCIETY, AMERICAN (NEBRASKA DIVISION)

On Call - Twice a Year

CAR DEALERS ASSOCIATION

Monthly - Blackstone Hotel

CAREER WOMEN, INTERNATIONAL ASS'N. OF

4th Wednesday - Sheraton-Fontenelle

CATHOLIC WOMEN OMAHA DEANERY COUNCIL

1st Tuesday - Castle Hotel

CEREBRAL PALSEY OF OMAHA, UNITED

3rd Monday - Athletic Club

CHEFS, AMATEUR ASSOCIATION OF

Monthly

CHEMICAL SOCIETY OF AMERICA

Monthly

CHRIST CHILD SOCIETY

2nd Monday - Christ Child Center

CIVIC CLUB, SOUTHEAST

1st Monday - Sokol Hall

CIVIC CLUB, SOUTHWEST

4th Thursday - Norris Jr. High School

CIVIL DEFENSE, WOMEN (OMAHA & DOUGLAS COUNTY)

4th Monday - Various Places

CLINICAL SOCIETY, OMAHA MIDWEST

Sheraton-Fontenelle Hotel

COMMERCIAL CLUB, NORTH OMAHA

Last Thursday - Birchwood Club

COMMERCIAL CLUB, VINTON

2nd Thursday - 1724 Vinton St.

COMMERCIAL TRAVELERS OF AMERICA

2nd Saturday - Castle Hotel

COMMUNITY SERVICES, UNITED

4th Thursday - Downtown Hotels

CONCORD CLUB

Thursday Noon - Castle Hotel

CONFERENCE, OF CHRISTIAN & JEWS NAT'L.

3rd Thursday - Sheraton-Fontenelle

CONTINENTAL CLUB

Friday Noon - Athletic Club

COSMOPOLITAN CLUB

Tuesday - Castle Hotel

COUNCIL OF CHURCHES, OMAHA AREA

1st Tuesday - YMCA Building

CRECHE BOARD OF DIRECTORS

1st Wednesday - Omaha Club

CREDIT GRANTORS OF OMAHA, ASSOCIATED RETAIL

Tuesday - Regis Hotel

CREDIT MANAGEMENT, NAT'L. ASS'N.
(NEBRASKA-WESTERN IOWA UNIT)

3rd Thursday - Various Hotels

CREDIT WOMEN'S BREAKFAST CLUB OF OMAHA

3rd Wednesday Breakfast - Regis Hotel

CREIGHTON UNIVERSITY ALUMNI ASSOCIATION

Board Room Administration Building

CRIPPLED CHILDREN'S SOCIETY (NEBRASKA)

Exec. Committee Monthly - Various Places

CROATION FRATERNAL UNION ST. PETER & PAUL LODGE #101

1st Sunday - St. Peter & Paul's

DAUGHTERS OF AMERICAN REVOLUTION

2nd Saturday - Omaha Women's Club

DAUGHTERS OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION (OMAHA CHAPTER)

2nd Tuesday - Women's Club

DEGREE OF HONOR AK-SAR-BEN

3rd Tuesday - Monthly - YWCA

DENTAL SOCIETY, OMAHA DISTRICT

Monthly - Various Places

DAUGHTERS OF THE NILE SAT RA TEMPLE #59

1st Thursday - Masonic Temple

EAGLES - FRATERNAL ORDER OF #38

Monday Evening - 201 S 24th St.

EASTERN STAR TRINITY CHAPTER, ORDER OF

2nd & 4th Thursday - Masonic Temple

EASTERN STAR, OWAISSA CHAPTER OF

1st & 3rd Tuesday - 8223 N 30th St.

EASTERN STAR MAPLE LEAF, CHAPTER OF

2nd & 4th Saturday - Masonic Temple

EASTERN STAR GRAND CHAPTER

Masonic Temple

EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, OMAHA

2nd Tuesday - Central High School

ELECTRICAL CONTRACTORS OF OMAHA

Monthly - Various Places

ELKS LODGE, V.P.O. #1817

2nd & 4th Thursday - Elks Club

EMPLOYERS COUNCIL, MIDWEST

On Call - Various Places

ENGINEERS CLUB OF OMAHA

Wednesday - Paxton Hotel

EXCHANGE CLUB

Tuesday - Athletic Club

EXECUTIVES ASSOCIATION, OMAHA

Thursdays - Sheraton-Fontenelle

FAMILY & CHILD SERVICE OF OMAHA

3rd Thursday - 2240 Landon Court

FONTENELLE FOREST ASSOCIATION

2nd Wednesday - Athletic Club

FOOD RETAILERS ASSOCIATION OF OMAHA

2nd Wednesday - Various Restaurants

FURNITURE SALESMEN'S ASSOCIATION (MIDWEST)

Last Saturday - The Mediterranean

GARDEN CLUBS, OMAHA COUNCIL

Bi-monthly - 30th & Ames

GIRL SCOUTS, INC.

Monthly - 3202 Harney Street

GOODWILL IND., NEBRASKA INC.

Monthly - Goodwill Ind. Bldg.

GRAIN EXCHANGE

Monthly - 728 Grain Exchange Bldg.

HEARING SCHOOL, INC.

Monthly - Blackstone

HEART ASSOCIATION OF NEBRASKA

Quarterly - Nebraska Heart Ass'n. Office

HIBERNIANS, ANCIENT ORDER OF (DIVISION #1)

2nd Wednesday - 1619 Leavenworth St.

HORSELESS CARRIAGE CLUB OF AMERICA

3rd Saturday - Hungarian Home

HOTEL GREETERS OF AMERICA NEBRASKA IOWA-CHARTER #1

On Call - Various Hotels

HUMANE SOCIETY

Semi-Monthly - Various Places

INDUSTRIAL FOUNDATION, OMAHA

Monthly - Various Hotels

INDUSTRIAL MANAGEMENT CLUB OF OMAHA

Monthly - YMCA

INSURANCE AGENTS, OMAHA

Monthly - Hill Hotel

JEWISH FEDERATION OF OMAHA

Monthly

JEWISH WAR VETERANS OF THE USA

Last Wednesday

FEDERATION OF JEWISH WOMEN'S CLUBS

Quarterly - JCC

JOBS DAUGHTERS

1st & 3rd Monday - Masonic Temple

KENNEL CLUB OF NEBRASKA

3rd Wednesday - Fontenelle Park

KIWANIS CLUB OF DUNDEE

Monday - Blackstone Hotel

KIWANIS CLUB - OMAHA

Friday Noon - Sheraton-Fontenelle

KIWANIS CLUB OF NORTH OMAHA

Tuesday - Birchwood Club

KIWANIS CLUB OF SOUTH OMAHA

Thursday - Johnny's Cafe

KNIGHTS OF COLUMBUS COUNCIL #652

1st Tuesday - K of C Bldg.

KNIGHTS OF PYTHIAS

2nd Thursday - Sokol Auditorium

LIBERAL ARTS, SOCIETY OF

2nd Tuesday - Joslyn Art Museum

LIONS CLUB, BENSON

1st & 3rd Tuesday - Napoleon Restaurant

LIONS CLUB, WESTSIDE

2nd & 4th Monday - Angelo's

LIONS CLUB, OMAHA

Tuesday Noon - Sheraton-Fontenelle

MEDICAL SOCIETY OF OMAHA & DOUGLAS COUNTY

2nd Tuesday - Omaha Athletic Club

MERCHANTS ASS'N., SOUTH OMAHA

3rd Wednesday - Johnny's Cafe

MULTIPLE SCLEROSIS, DOUGLAS COUNTY

Monthly - Clarkson Hospital

MUSCULAR DYSTROPHY

Every 2 months - Various Places

MUSICIANS ASS'N. OF OMAHA

Four times a year - Sheraton-Fontenelle

MUSIC TEACHERS ASSOCIATION OF OMAHA

Monthly - Various Places

MUSIK VERIN, OMAHA

Tuesday Evenings - 421 N 17th St.

NEW NEIGHBORS LEAGUE

Last Thursday of Month - Athletic Club

OFFICE MANAGEMENT ASS'N., NATIONAL

3rd Wednesday - Sheraton-Fontenelle

OPTIMIST CLUB OF OMAHA

Wednesdays - Sheraton-Fontenelle

PAINTING & DECORATING CONTRACTORS

Monthly

PERSONNEL ASSOCIATION, OMAHA

2nd Tuesday - Fireside Restaurant

PLAYHOUSE, OMAHA

2nd Wednesday - Omaha Club

PRESS CLUB, OMAHA

Meetings on call

PROFESSIONAL MEN'S CLUB

Monday - Athletic Club

PRINTING HOUSE CRAFTSMEN CLUB, OMAHA

2nd Wednesday - Castle Hotel

PUBLIC LIBRARY

Monthly - Main Library

PURCHASING AGENTS, GREATER OMAHA ASS'N.

2nd Wednesday - Hotel Castle

QUOTA CLUB OF OMAHA

1st & 3rd Thursdays - Regis Hotel

RAILWAY BUSINESS WOMEN, NAT'L. ASS'N.

3rd Thursday - Various Places

REAL ESTATE BOARD OF OMAHA

Wednesday Noon - Athletic Club

RED CROSS - DOUGLAS/SARPY COUNTY

2nd Monday of Month - Red Cross Office

REPUBLICAN CENTRAL COMMITTEE, DOUGLAS COUNTY

1st Wednesday of Month

OMAHA RESTAURANT ASSOCIATION

2nd Tuesday - Various Places

RETAILERS OF OMAHA, ASSOCIATED

2nd Tuesday - Retailers Office

ROTARY CLUB OF OMAHA

Wednesday - Sheraton-Fontenelle

ROTARY CLUB OF WEST OMAHA

Weekly - Hilltop House

ROYAL ARCANUM

2nd Tuesday - Dannebrog Hall

SAFETY COUNCIL OF OMAHA

Last Wednesday Noon

SALES & MARKETING EXECUTIVES, OMAHA

3rd Monday

SALES MANAGERS ASS'N. OF OMAHA

Monthly - Blackstone

SALVATION ARMY

2nd Tuesday - Athletic Club

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS ASSOCIATION

Monthly - Various Places

SECRETARIES ASS'N., NATIONAL AK-SAR-BEN CHAPTER

2nd Tuesday - Sheraton-Fontenelle

SECRETARIES, ASS'N. NATIONAL NEBOMA CHAPTER

2nd & 4th Thursday

SERTOMA CLUB OF OMAHA

Friday - Sheraton-Fontenelle

SHRINE WOMEN'S AUXILIARY

2nd & 4th Wednesday - Masonic Temple

SMALL PROPERTY OWNER'S ASSOCIATION

2nd Wednesday of Month - Paxton Hotel

SOCIAL SETTLEMENT ASS'N. OF OMAHA

2nd Tuesday - Settlement House

SOROPTIMIST CLUB OF OMAHA

2nd & 4th Wednesday - Sheraton-Fontenelle

TANGIER TEMPLE

2nd Thursday - Masonic Temple Bldg.

TANGIER WOMEN'S AUXILIARY

2nd & 4th Wednesday

TEMPLE ISRAEL

3rd Wednesday - Temple Israel

TOASTMASTERS CLUBS 18 CHAPTERS

Various Places

TOASTMISTRESS CLUB OF OMAHA

2nd & 4th Tuesday - Hill Hotel

TRAFFIC CLUB OF OMAHA

3rd Thursday - Various Hotels

UNIVERSITY OF OMAHA ALUMNI ASS'N.

University of Omaha

UNIVERSITY WOMEN, AMERICAN ASS'N.

1st Saturday after 1st Wednesday - Various Places

URBAN LEAGUE, OMAHA

2nd Monday - Creighton University

URBAN LEAGUE GUILD OF OMAHA

3rd Wednesday - 30th & Ames

VARIETY CLUB

Monthly - Various Places

VETERANS, DISABLED AMERICAN

1st Tuesday - Chapter House

VETERANS OF FOREIGN WARS

4th Tuesday - City Hall

WALKING CLUB OF OMAHA

2nd Friday of Month - Various Places

WOMEN'S INTER-CLUB COUNCIL

2nd Tuesday - Athletic Club

WOMEN'S RELIEF CORPS #88

2nd Friday - YWCA

YMCA BOARD OF DIRECTORS

Monthly Meeting - YMCA

UNIVERSITY OF OMAHA

Omaha, Nebraska

February 1, 1963

Dear Sir,

I am a graduate student at the University of Omaha. In order to complete the requirements for a Masters Degree in Sociology, I must conduct a research project. Will you assist me in this endeavor?

Nearly 300 military men at Offutt A.F.B. have been chosen to participate in this research. Permission has been granted for this study by the Graduate Division at the University of Omaha and the Base Commander at Offutt.

This research will measure the extent of military membership in local clubs and associations such as the Rotary Club and the American Legion. Many studies have been made of group participation in formal organizations; however, missing in the literature is evidence of voluntary association membership of a military group. This investigation will attempt to fill this void.

Since the value of this research is dependent on a good response to the mailed questionnaire, will you please co-operate with us? The information needed can be given by filling out the attached questionnaire and returning the same in the enclosed self-addressed envelope. You are not requested to indicate your name on the questionnaire.

Thank you for your interest and cooperation.

Sincerely yours,

Vivian Laughlin
3212 Whiteman Dr.

Q U E S T I O N N A I R E

PART I

Instructions: Please circle the correct response.

I. SEX
1. Male
2. Female

II. AGE
1. 18-28
2. 29-39
3. 40-50
4. 51-61
5. over 61

III. RACE
1. White
2. Negro
3. Mongoloid
4. Other

IV. MARITAL STATUS
1. Married
2. Single
3. Divorsed
4. Widowed
5. Separated

V. FAMILY STATUS
(If married)
1. No children
2. One child
3. Two children
4. Three children or more

VI. RELIGION
1. Protestant
2. Catholic
3. Jewish
4. No religious affiliation

VII. HOME TENURE
1. Own home
2. Rent
3. Government housing

VIII. FATHER'S OCCUPATION
1. Professional
2. Manager, Officials
3. Clerical workers
4. Sales workers
5. Craftsman, operatives
6. Farmers
7. Laborers

IX. EDUCATION
1. Some high school (last grade)_____.
2. High school graduate
3. Some College (Classification)_____.
4. College graduate

X. RANK
1. Colonel
2. Major
3. First Lieutenant
4. Senior Master Sergeant
5. Tech. Sergeant
6. Airmen First Class

XI. ANNUAL INCOME
1. $15,000 and over
2. $11,000-14,999
3. $ 8,000-10,999
4. $ 5,000- 7,999
5. $ 2,000- 4,999
6. Under $2,000

XII. MILITARY STATUS
1. Regular
2. Reserve

XIII. TOTAL YEARS SERVICE
1. Less than 5 years
2. 5 or under 10 years
3. 10 or under 15 years
4. 15 or under 20 years
5. 20 or under 25 years
6. 25 and over

XIV. LENGTH OF ASSIGNMENT AT OFFUTT
1. Less than one year
2. 1 year
3. 2 years
4. 3 years
5. 4 years
6. Over 5 years

PART II

Instructions: In this research project, formal organizations are defined as structured organizations, that is, having offices filled by election or selection, periodic meetings, and meetings frequently held in a regular meeting place.

Please indicate by circling the correct response if you are a member of any of the clubs or organizations listed below. Space is provided for listing any additional organizations, not listed below, of which you are a member.

Please indicate by circling the correct response if the organization of which you are a member meets weekly, monthly, or other. Space is provided for estimating number of meetings missed a year.

MEMBERSHIP	ATTEND MEETINGS	ESTIMATE NUMBER MEETINGS MISSED A YEAR
I. Youth Serving		
1. Cub Scouts	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	1._____.
2. Boy Scouts	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	2._____.
3. YMCA	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	3._____.
4. _____.	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	4._____.
5. _____.	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	5._____.
II. EDUCATIONAL		
1. Parents-Teachers Assoc.	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	1._____.
2. Alumni	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	2._____.
3. Fraternity	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	3._____.
4. _____.	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	4._____.
5. _____.	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	5._____.

(over)

ERSHIP	ATTEND MEETINGS	ESTIMATE NO. MEETINGS MISSED A YR.
. Professional or Scientific		
1. American Medical Assoc.	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	1._____.
2. American Dental Assoc.	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	2._____.
3. Sociological Society	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	3._____.
4. _____.	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	4._____.
5. _____.	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	5._____.
V. Fraternal (Lodges)		
1. Rotary	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	1._____.
2. Knights of Columbus	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	2._____.
3. Moose Lodge	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	3._____.
4. _____.	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	4._____.
5. _____.	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	5._____.
V. Patriotic or Military		
1. American Legion	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	1._____.
2. Veterans of Foreign War	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	2._____.
3. Air Academy Athletic Assoc.	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	3._____.
4. _____.	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	4._____.
5. _____.	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	5._____.
VI. Recreational		
1. Baseball League	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	1._____.
2. Bowling League	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	2._____.
3. Golf Association	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	3._____.
4. _____.	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	4._____.
5. _____.	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	5._____.
II. Hobby		
1. Bridge Club	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	1._____.
2. Gun Club	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	2._____.
3. Aero Club	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	3._____.
4. _____.	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	4._____.
5. _____.	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	5._____.
I. Church Organizations		
1. Sunday School Program	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	1._____.
2. Choir	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	2._____.
3. Youth Fellowship	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	3._____.
4. _____.	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	4._____.
5. _____.	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	5._____.
X. Social		
1. Country Club	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	1._____.
2. Toastmaster Club	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	2._____.
3. Community Club	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	3._____.
4. _____.	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	4._____.
5. _____.	1.Weekly 2.Monthly 3.Other	5._____.